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ABSTRACT

Three issues of the journal "TEAM" are presented. Each issue contains feature articles, a section on teaching techniques, book reviews, English Language Center news items, and announcements. The articles in these three issues deal with the following topics: the freshman English course at the University of Minerals and Petroleum, a course in writing English, the cultural orientation vocabulary component, notional-functionalism, cloze procedures, English as an international language, cliches in British and American English, a rule for translating Arabic Measure V verbs into English, English for Special Purposes in King Abdulaziz University, a description of an intensive language program, factors leading to success in second language learning, and English and Arabic phonology. The sections on teaching techniques discuss some contextualized grammar exercises, science and technical readers, task listening, a guided reading and speaking activity using cloze procedure, and suggestions for presenting some features of English grammar. (AMH)

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Editor's Note

With Michael Hohl's appointment as Coordinator of the University English Program, the editorship of TEAM MAGAZINE has entered a transition phase in which the present editor will serve until succeeded by TEAM staff member Thomas Adams in September of this year.

Denis Egan

FRESHMAN ENGLISH AT UPM

by Michael Hohl

Syllabus design and materials development have been important considerations of the University English Program during the last year. The syllabus and material which have been developed have been an attempt to meet student language needs as perceived by the English Department and to a lesser extent by the faculty of the other university departments. An academic skills questionnaire which was distributed to UPM faculty during the spring semester of 1982, provided a basis for syllabus design. In the survey, engineering, industrial management, and science faculty members were asked to indicate those language skills that they felt were most necessary for success at UPM. According to the survey results, the most critical reading skill is the ability to read textbook material; the critical listening skill is the ability to take notes; and, the writing skills most necessary for academic success are the ability to write reports and the ability to write one paragraph answers (Hohl 1982). In light of the above findings and the experience of the UEP faculty, the freshman course syllabus was redesigned to reflect a bias towards English for academic purposes.

English 101 and 102 are sequential courses whose major emphases are reading and writing. The primary goal of the reading program is to help the student deal successfully with the textbooks he is expected to read in his academic coursework. The basic reading text in English 101 is Reading Technical Books by Anne Eisenburg. Reading Technical Books is not an EFL textbook. It was written for native English speakers studying at a community college. Reading Technical Books is supplemented by Developing Reading Skills by Hirasawa and Markstein. In English 102, Reading Technical Books is retained as a text. It is supplemented by several unedited articles selected from periodicals and encyclopedias. These authentic texts were selected on the basis of the particular style of writing which they reflect.

The major concerns of the writing program of English 101 and 102 are two-fold. First, students need practice in writing one paragraph essays so that they can answer essay questions given on tests in the engineering sciences and industrial management. Second, the students need library research skills in order to write the short research reports assigned to them in the junior and senior years by the engineering and industrial management teachers as well as the longer co-op paper required of the engineering students. The culminating activity of the 101-102 writing sequence is a seven to ten paragraph research report. In order to prepare the students for this report, summarizing, reporting, and library skills are gradually introduced as well as composition practice in several rhetorical modes.

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The freshman course also contains a grammar component. The presentation of this component is an attempt not only to review and extend the student's knowledge of English grammar, but also to provide a framework for approaching the reading and writing.

The materials which have been developed over the past year have been printed in two student workbooks and a research report handbook, which includes exercises on various library skills. Each unit of the student workbooks is divided into reading, composition, and grammar components. The units begin with readings from Reading Technical Books or Developing Reading Skills or (in English 102) an authentic text. Vocabulary exercises are provided to supplement those already available in the reading books. The exercises which have been developed to supplement Reading Technical Books are designed to teach dictionary skills as well as vocabulary in context. Most of the exercises require extensive use of the American Heritage Dictionary. Dictionary skills are tested in the final exam of English 101. The grammar component of the student workbooks includes exercises designed to develop and check the students' knowledge of sentence-level English grammar and syntax. The grammar component is correlated (as much as possible) with the composition modes under study in each unit; e.g., adjective clauses and definition are taught together, as are the passive voice and process description.

The freshman course is not without its shortcomings. One glaring deficiency (if we accept the results of the academic skills questionnaire) is the lack of attention given to note-taking. The major problem of the course, however, is that there is not sufficient time available for English instruction. Since most of the students enter the freshman year with an intermediate to advanced level of language proficiency, 45 hours of instruction spread over a semester of 15 weeks is the bare minimum amount of instruction students need to cope successfully with their other courses which are taught in English. Given the limited amount of instructional time available, our program is too ambitious; given student need, it may not be ambitious enough.

Reference

Hohl, Michael, 1982; Necessary English At UPM: A Faculty Survey. TEAM 42:15-20.

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BACKGROUND NOTES ON 'WRITING ENGLISH' (001)

by Kevin J. Dunseath

The present 001 writing course, 'Writing English' differs in two significant ways from the course previously used. Firstly, the materials contained in 'Writing English' represent an attempt to ensure that the writing material develops out of the reading material. Secondly, because of the need of remedial groundwork 'Writing English' provides a large number of exercises at sentence-level as well as at paragraph-level.

The decision to derive the rest of the course material from the reading component was made at an early stage in the planning of our syllabus (for a discussion of some of the issues involved, see Dunseath, Summer 1982). Whether this decision was correct or not is at the moment irrelevant. What is of interest now is that the decision had a significant effect on the preparation of the writing course.

There were three main problems in putting together a writing course based principally upon the reading material. In the first place, the writer was theoretically restricted to using only vocabulary already presented in the corresponding reading unit or taken from that small (and elusive) set of vocabulary items assumed to be already known. This meant that, at paragraph level particularly, there was very little that the students could write about. It also meant, in effect, that there was a severe shortage of 'metalanguage' terms.

The second problem was that the reading material did not reflect either the sequence of sentence structures or the sequence of organizational strategies that was considered most suitable for the writing course. It did not seem possible to achieve the goal of a close relationship between the reading and the writing and, at the same time, construct a writing course with its own internal logic of development.

Thirdly, the content of the reading passages was not always such that the passages could readily lend themselves to exploitation in writing. The students' knowledge of many technical subjects would be quickly exhausted if they were to venture beyond the information presented in the passage. On the other hand, merely rehashing information would be not only rather tedious but also beyond the scope of many students.

A further problem, of a more general nature, was the extremely wide range of proficiency within the projected classes. It would be difficult to construct material which would be both simple enough for the less proficient and at the same time challenging for the more proficient.

Solutions to these various problems were sought and what emerged was 'Writing English.' Each unit of 'Writing English' contains teaching-points and exercises at three levels: the first level provides basic remedial work, the second level is directed at the sentence, and the third at the paragraph. Teachers can guide their students through each unit, allowing the less proficient students to spend more time on levels one and two and permitting the more proficient students to concentrate on levels two and three. Each level follows a progression of its own but the levels are related either by a common notional category or by a common theme, or by both.

A compromise solution was reached for the selection of vocabulary. In the sentence-level exercises, the vocabulary is drawn almost exclusively from the reading passages, usually from the passages for that particular week. This provides useful reinforcement of newly-acquired lexical items. In the paragraph-level exercises, however, a certain amount of new vocabulary is introduced but the number of such items is kept to a minimum and, in almost all cases, the new vocabulary items relate to themes developed in the reading. As for the metalanguage terms, it was found to be unavoidable that a limited number of new words should be introduced. Otherwise, certain necessary explanations could not be made.

The problem of finding, for the paragraph-level exercises, subjects which were related to the reading passages and yet within the students' competence was tackled by providing the students with most of the data they would require in the form of notes, a table or diagrams. Therefore, since the content is very largely 'given', the teacher can concentrate his attention on the form.

It remains to be seen whether the solutions outlined above help the students to achieve the objectives of the course.

By the end of 001, students are expected to be able to write two or three short paragraphs. Their paragraphs should be well-constructed and their sentences relatively simple but well-formed. Once these goals are achieved, the students will be ready for the course in summary-writing and information transfer which awaits them in 002.

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Dunseath, Kevin J., 1982. The True Foundation: Reading or Grammar? Some Problems in Course Design for the OEP. TEAM 42, 2-7.

THE OEP VOCABULARY COMPONENT

by Terry Dale

Introduction

During the past year, the vocabulary component of the Orientation English Program has undergone a number of fairly substantial changes. The three-fold aim of this short article is to explain the reasons behind the changes, to describe and account for the current form of the component and, finally, to make some tentative suggestions for its future development.

The Need for Change

The vocabulary component previously consisted of a set of ELC-produced vocabulary review exercise workbooks (VRE) together with a set of three Advanced English Vocabulary workbooks (AEV) by Helen Barnard. The vocabulary for the review exercises had been selected exclusively from three sources: core readings, listening passages and units fromn AEV. It had been felt necessary to supplement our own VRE books with Barnard's AEV in order to be reasonably sure that the vocabulary presented to our students was not simply a selection of randomly occurring items (from reading and listening). Barnard's (1971) excellent books, thoroughly tested over a number of years, claim to

> ".....enable students to read English textbooks, understand lectures and seminars in English.....read books, newspapers and journals in English"

Clearly, the AEV workbooks would guarantee that our students would be receiving the kind of sub-technical vocabulary that they would undoubtedly encounter at Freshman level.

Three factors, however, necessitated change. First, the rewriting of a number of reading and listening passages meant that the VRE books no longer accurately reflected the course. Second, the belief was expressed that the inclusion in the vocabulary component of vocabulary from grammar, writing and related readings would benefit the course as a whole. The third, and perhaps most important factor, however, concerned the same high-quality AEV workbooks which had originally seemed to be an essential part of the vocabulary component.

Notwithstanding their excellence, it became apparent that the AEV workbooks had failed to coalesce as efficiently as they might with the rest of the vocabulary component. In effect, the component now consisted of two separate courses that competed with rather than complemented one another.

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In any given week, for example, we might present our students with sixty or seventy items occurring in their reading and listening passages. At the same time, they were expected to deal with approximately the same number of items in AEV. Unfortunately, the simultaneous appearance of the same item in both courses was purely coincidental. Typically, any given item occurring in the reading or listening passages of a particular week would quite probably have already been previewed in AEV weeks before or else it would quite likely be reviewed there several weeks later. This lack of correspondence increased what was already a heavy lexical load.

The Revised Vocabulary Component

The word studies are organized into weekly units, each consisting of a preview (Part A) and a review (Part B) of the week's vocabulary. A typical list contains approximately 35 "headwords" with a similar number of "related words". There is a substantial amount of re-cycling in later vocabulary units. This amount of vocabulary, much of which is already familiar to students, is felt to be satisfactory for a three or four-day assignment.

The composition of the lists are determined in the following way. Items selected for the preview are drawn from four sources, namely grammar, writing, related reading and listening passage. The grammar and writing components supply relatively few items but the inclusion of some vocabulary from them is felt to be important, since the appearance of any unknown lexical items in these components would only serve to obscure or interfere with the particular grammar or writing point being taught. The items selected from the related reading and listening passages are composed of those words which we cannot reasonably expect the student to know or infer from context.

Most of the vocabulary in the review is taken from the week's core reading. These items are reviewed rather than previewed for two reasons. First, the core reading is intended to be more "teacher-oriented" than the related reading so students need not be prepared in advance. Second, any preview of the items would necessarily interfere with the "vocabulary - in - context" exercises which form an important part of each core reading in that they give the students practice in an essential skill. The remainder of the review vocabulary is made up of those items from the related reading and the listening passages whose meanings students are expected either to be familiar with already or to be able to infer from their particular context.

Numerous diagrams and pictures have been included in the word studies both to help explain the meanings of the words and to lighten some fairly heavy reading. In addition, cassettes have been recorded to accompany each word study. These help to lead the student through the explanations and, at the same time, they help to reconcile the spoken word with its written form.

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A set of six or seven exercises - synonym, word formation, etc. - are required to be completed by the student after he has finished a word study.

The vocabulary component differs from the four major components in that it is intended primarily as a self-study activity. The student already receives a wide exposure to the items in all the course components. In addition, the word studies, exercises, cassettes and the teacher himself perform the function of reinforcing the active learning of these words by the student himself.

Some Thoughts about the Component's Future Development

1. The major aim of the vocabulary component is to facilitate the Orientation student's acquisition of a substantial body of sub-technical vocabulary which will be directly relevant to his future studies as a Freshman.

However, a second, narrower aim exists which at times conflicts with the first. We might best describe this subsidiary aim by saying that it provides a specific service to the four major components of the course. The conflict lies in the fact that the performance of the service may sometimes necessitate the inclusion of lexical items that are not strictly sub-technical. One example of this service has already been mentioned, namely the desirability of previewing unknown vocabulary from grammar and writing. A second example would be the inclusion of carefully selected technical vocabulary from reading and listening. Examples of such items include "stereoscope", "seismograph", "crest". Such words merit a place for two reasons - either because of their useful morphological content or because their inclusion in a word study will provide a complete picture of the vocabulary that the student has been exposed to. Since his own dictionary does not contain such words, the word studies will constitute a reasonable reference source for the student.

Although it is desirable to include items that are not strictly sub-technical for the reasons given above, we obviously do not want our students to learn them. At the present time, we do not make a distinction between these two groups of words. In future, however, we should make the distinction explicit by asterisking such items. The asterisk would denote that students are not expected to learn these words for the end-of-semester exams.

2. One of the immediate consequences of the decision to have the responsibility for vocabulary shared equally between a section's two teachers has been the increased amount of time that has become available in class for vocabulary activities. Ideally, the vocabulary component should be allotted a regular hourly slot in the week's timetable, but much can still be achieved with the fairly flexible hour that we now have.

In addition to dealing with the week's vocabulary assignment, many teachers are setting a weekly vocabulary quiz. These provide students with much-needed additional practice. (It is hoped that, eventually, many of these quizzes will be put on computer for the benefit of every student).

The extra time available, however, can perhaps be more profitably used by involving the students in vocabulary activities that require them to use their newly-acquired words in a natural, rather than quiz/test, atmosphere. Some interesting ideas for activities have already started circulating among teachers. One of the major tasks of the component will be the compilation of a resource file of various vocabulary games and activities that can be made available to all teachers.

3. According to a statistical analysis by Wilson (1982), conducted to ascertain the relevance of the lexical content of last year's OEP English syllabus, our course seems to be providing the students with a lexicon that is highly relevant to their Freshman Year studies. It would be extremely interesting if a similar study could be conducted into the lexical relevance of the present course, now that the AEV books have been replaced and much of the course has been rewritten.

Conclusion

A modest start has been made to the revision of the vocabulary component. Further modifications, improvements and refinements will be needed before the component can achieve some degree of stability. In the meantime, it is hoped that enough interest will have been generated among teachers who have ideas and suggestions about making the vocabulary component an effective and enjoyable part of the course.

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WHAT IS NOTIONAL-FUNCTIONALISM ?

by Thomas J. Ferrucci

The field of foreign language teaching, and of the teaching of English as a Second/Foreign Language in particular, has, in the past decade, been exposed to a number of new methodologies. The Silent Way, Counseling-Learning, Total Physical Response, and others have all arisen as a result of dissatisfaction over weaknesses within the structural approach to language teaching. Among these new approaches is the notional-functional or communicative syllabus.

The notional-functional (N-F) syllabus shares the goal of other new methodologies to establish within the foreign language learner the ability to respond effectively to any language situation and to properly initiate a communicative act in order to satisfy any personal or social need. This goal has been labeled "communicative competence." It is the perceived inability of the structural/situational syllabuses to facilitate communicative competence that has encouraged the development of a plan of foreign language teaching that establishes itself not on lifeless units of linguistic elements but on the investigation of social interaction and of its dictates of the use of linguistic elements.

Widdowson (1978) distinguishes "usage" (linguistic knowledge of a language) from "use" (communicative ability), stating that:

> ....a knowledge of use must of necessity include a knowledge of usage but the reverse is not the case; it is possible for someone to have learned a large number of sentence patterns and a large number of words which can fit into them without knowing how they are actually put into communicative use.

Further, he comments, since linguistic knowledge is necessarily a part of communicative ability, it is "sensible to design language teaching courses with reference to (communicative) use." It is this same view that has prompted such methodologists as D.A. Wilkins and J.A. van Ek to design frameworks for foreign language teaching that are defined in terms of concepts (notions) and functions within which words and syntax are used. Enjoying support from the group of linguists known as the Council of Europe, these two have led the effort to establish the N-F syllabus, a teaching plan based on language functions or speech acts rather than on units of grammar.

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The Design of a Notional-Functional Syllabus

N-F syllabuses have customarily defined a list of six to eight language functions within which are placed a sizeable list of notions. This list then serves as a menu from which a curriculum planner may choose. The choice of what notions to include in any specific curriculum is determined by relevance to the learners' goals. Also the progression from one notion to another or from one function to another need not follow specific lines. Unlike a structural syllabus, therefore, which generally progresses along the order of linguistic difficulty, the N-F syllabus may be tailored to meet the particular needs of the language learner.

To illustrate what form a N-F syllabus may take we will look at that one constructed by Wilkins in 1976. Six communicative FUNCTIONS are described (items in parentheses indicate NOTIONS):

1. Judgment and evaluation (approving, disapproving, forgiving, etc.)
2. Suasion (persuading, commanding, scolding, etc.)
3. Argument (agreeing, denying, conceding, etc.)
4. Rational inquiry and exposition (inferring, comparing, proving, etc.)
5. Personal emotions (enjoyment, sorrow, resentment, etc.)
6. Emotional relations (greetings, gratitude, flattery, etc.)

Other lists of notions/functions have been designed by Dobson and Hawkins (1978), van Ek (1976), and others.

What the N-F Syllabus Can Do

One of the more substantial advantages of the N-F approach is its adaptability to special learner needs. As mentioned above, a specific program may be built around the goals of a particular learner or class of learners. Necessary grammatical structures will be capably taught within certain language functions and with the use of certain notions. The students need not be bound to a linguistically-graded structural progression. Stratton (1977) feels that the N-F syllabus provides "a much more viable approach than the structural/situational syllabus because of its amenability to adaptation." Further, transfer of the linguistic knowledge to a wider application will be facilitated by the presentation of linguistic elements within a communicative context.

The N-F syllabus is the first attempt to integrate what is involved in communication into a language teaching syllabus (Widdowson, 1979). Through the use of discourse analysis, it indicates a direction that language teachers may follow in the exploration of register variation, or different styles of language use (Brown, 1980). It also aids the learning of non-verbal communication, an important component of communicative ability. Additionally, when presented in contexts that are realistic to the learner, the use of a N-F approach places the learner in a situation that entails authentic communicative transaction.

Limitations of Notional-Functionalism

As with any language teaching method, the N-F approach is not a final answer to the question of a complete teaching method. One problem found by Widdowson is that just as with a structural syllabus, language is divided into isolated components. These components are notional rather than structural, but nevertheless they are components. What is missing, he claims, is an adequate consideration of language as discourse. Finding two basic characteristics of discourse -- interaction and structure -- Widdowson calls for the development of a method that will incorporate these two characteristics, determining the manner in which language items are sequenced and the manner in which these items are presented (Widdowson, 1979).

A second shortcoming of the N-F syllabus, Stratton has shown, is that the description of speech rules within specific speech acts is yet incomplete. Moreover, the decision to distinguish these speech rules is subjective, relying on the intuition of the syllabus designer (Stratton, 1977).

An additional inadequacy found by Stratton, that a N-F syllabus places a heavy burden on the learner, is significant only when this type of syllabus is used with a beginning level group of learners. Stratton concedes that such a burden is greatly lessened for more experienced learners.

Conclusion

It may appear to the critic at first glance that notional-functionalism is a facetious and untenable plan for teaching. "How," one might ask, "can an entire lesson be based on something such as 'agreeing?' Imagine a dialogue in which the speakers do nothing but agree with each other or with someone else! And do we have exercises in which every sentence shows how a person agrees? Really!" Actually such a view is superficial. It fails to consider the premise of notional-functionalism: behind any speech act there is a need to communicate. This need is internal and is prompted by the situation in which the speaker finds himself. The means by which the need is expressed are the lexicon and the grammar of a language. The need is primary, and one can see that the grammar is secondary. It is not the aim of notional-functionalism to discount entirely the value of grammar. The intention of the proponents of notional-functionalism is to put grammar in a proper perspective, to regard it not as an end in itself, but as a vehicle for the expression of an inner need. Hence the focus on something abstract and internal, that something which is labeled a "notion."

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And so to answer the above criticism one might say that just as any good grammar lesson incorporates the structure in focus into a pragmatic dialogue and exercises, so does the N-F approach incorporate the notion in focus into a realistic dialogue and into a practical context through which the student may exercise the appropriate manner in which the notion - the need - is expressed.

The N-F syllabus may never fully replace the structural syllabus. Stratton concludes that the structural syllabus still has a big role in the teaching of ESL/EFL. Widdowson sees the N-F syllabus as ".... a means of developing the structural syllabus rather than replacing it," and this is echoed by Dobson (1979) who states: ".... the notional syllabus represents not so much something new as simply a shift in emphasis in foreign language teaching." Accepting the idea that any new method modifies older approaches and improves them, it seems advisable to consider the N-F syllabus a starting point in the exploration for a comprehensive, coherent approach to the teaching of foreign languages.

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USING CLOZE PROCEDURES

by Robert Ellison

It has long been suggested by some researchers, among others Oller (1979) and Aitken (1977), that cloze is not only a good test of reading comprehension but also of a learner's overall language proficiency. Such views have recently been challenged by others who feel that Oller et al. have exaggerated the efficacy of cloze as a measure of reading comprehension or language proficiency. Alderson (1979) says, "...Cloze tests are relatively insensitive to discourse constraints and they are measures of somewhat lower-order skills [than, for example, reading comprehension]."

It would seem useful, therefore, to re-examine some of the issues that have to a large extent been taken for granted by those using cloze procedures and in addition, to try to assess the importance of cloze as a testing/exercising device. In order to do this, I propose first of all to look at possible variations of standard cloze procedure and then comment on the extent to which they may have validity as tests or exercises of reading comprehension or language proficiency.

Scoring Methods

With regard to scoring, little difference has been found in rank orders between using the exact word scoring method and the semantically acceptable one (in which the word is both grammatically and semantically correct whilst not necessarily the precise item in the tester's mind). However, in classrooms where students are given their work back, it would seem reasonable to give credit to an answer that is a good approximation of the original, as this should help to encodurage students. More important if, as is suggested by Goodman (1972), reading is a process of guessing ahead, then it is likely that such guesses will be collocations and/or paraphrasings of the material being read. (One assumption here is that good readers do not pay attention to every word; another is that processing is basically a semantic operation dependent to a great extent on the reader's existing semantic knowledge - that is, the reader tries to reduce everything to familiar terms.)

Adopting the semantically-acceptable word scoring method, nevertheless, poses certain problems, although these are by no means peculiar to cloze. For example, it may be difficult for markers in a test situation to agree on possible answers. Considerations on grammaticality are also difficult. Assuming that spelling is not regarded as an area where points should be deducted, how do we assess the relative demerits of omission of 's' in 3rd person singular and 'ed' in the past tense ? Also, what attitude should be taken to forms that are acceptable in non-standard dialects (They were schooling/studying at .....)?

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The whole question of scoring methods is a difficult one. There are occasions when the acceptable form-class method of scoring, ignoring the semantic fit, can be useful, for instance when testing a particular grammatical point. However, it seems important to treat such methods with circumspection, as they tend to minimise the importance of semantic content in reading comprehension.

Deletion Rate and Test Length

It has been argued for a number of years that a cloze test should have 50 deletions and thus be about 250-300 words long, assuming some non-clozed introduction and conclusion and a 5th word deletion rate. Such a recommendation relates particularly to the question of test reliability, but there is no reason why cloze exercises for classroom use should not be shorter. However, it is interesting to note that the whole question of test length is increasingly coming under fresh scrutiny. Rand (1978) concluded that a 25-item cloze gives sufficient precision for test purposes.

As for deletion rates, it has been generally accepted that cloze is easier when more content is given; thus a deletion rate of every 12th word in theory ought to be simpler than one where every 5th word is deleted. Alderson, (1979) in fact, found that this was not the case and it would seem important to handle this question very carefully. It is not necessarily the deletion rate but rather what is deleted that determines difficulty.

Modified Cloze

Variations on the usual deletion criterion (every ____th word) are naturally possible and have their value. For example, deletion of verbs or prepositions can be carried out to test these particular items. However, this approach should be seen as more of a discrete point test method as it does not call for the students to use global skills.

Further variations of the standard cloze procedure are possible, for example, two or three word, or multiple-choice methods. Here, depending on the level of the students, the distractors may be used to gauge students' sensitivity to grammatical semantic, or even stylistic features of a test. Whether such variations can overcome a common criticism of cloze that it rarely extends the student's comprehension beyond the local area of the deletion has still to be put to the test. However, it seems fairly obvious that, for example, anaphoric reference could be introduced quite easily into modified cloze procedures.

Some General Conclusions on Cloze

I have suggested above that some of the traditional assumptions about scoring methods, deletion rates and test length appear to require further examination. It also seems important to re-examine the fundamental assumption that underpins cloze procedure: that it is a valid method of testing reading comprehension and language proficiency.

Oller (1979) *et al*. believe that cloze measures linguistic, textual and 'world' knowledge and as such can be regarded, particularly if taken together with dictation, as a good measure of reading comprehension. In addition, since cloze appears to require such a wide-ranging application of 'knowledge', then it is suggested that it is a valid measure of language proficiency in general.

The evidence in support of these views is somewhat contradictory. Correlations of cloze with the Foreign Service Institute Oral Interview results are sometimes in excess of 70, which should be regarded as significant. However, when the results are looked at more closely, cloze appears to correlate particularly highly with the grammatical component which tends to compensate for lower figures on other components. Alderson also found this to be the case with the pattern of correlations of his test results with those of the Grammar and Vocabulary components of the English Language Battery Edinburgh Test.

I would suggest, therefore, that one tread carefully with the use of cloze as a testing or exercising technique and constantly keep in mind the following points:

1. Cloze in itself does not produce an unquestionably valid measure of reading comprehension or language proficiency.

2. No two cloze tests can be regarded as equal measures. Therefore, each test must be individually validated. This is due to the clear differences in what the individual deletions of each test actually attempt to test.

3. With respect to scoring methods, I would go along with Alderson's conclusion that "the sum of the evidence.....is that the semantically acceptable scoring procedure is the most suitable for use with cloze tests (in EFL situations)." However, we should not discount other procedures which have their particular merits depending on the nature of what is being tested or exercised.

4. There appears to be a sufficient body of evidence to suggest that cloze tests of a random variety tend to test knowledge at the level of the sentence rather than that of the paragraph or text. (See Alderson in particular.) In view of this, discretionary deletion (deleting words that call for a more searching examination of the students' knowledge of the wider context) may prove to be a useful area of research. Whether this is likely to be a more valid measure of reading comprehension and language proficiency must remain a matter of conjecture, owing to the difficulty we still have in trying to give an exact definition of, for example, what is involved in reading comprehension.

Finally, I would suggest that, if traditional cloze procedure is used as a test or exercise method, then the semantically acceptable scoring method should be used. However, I consider that there is considerable room for variation and that the introduction of multiple choice, discrete point and 'pragmatic' deletion (deletion at text level) are well worth consideration at both classroom and test levels.

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SOME CONTEXTUALISED GRAMMAR EXERCISES

by Tom Stableford

Even in ideal teaching conditions, the teaching of grammar through transformation and/or slot-filling exercises alone can prove tiring and tiresome for both teacher and students. For this reason, teachers may feel impelled to develop additional exercises to consolidate a particular grammar point and provide some variety. The exercises below, designed to contextualise discrete grammar items, have been tried and tested by the author on O.E.P. students with a pleasing degree of success. The pedagogical rationale of such exercises is a three-fold one: firstly, to develop greater comprehension of a form which may be only a student response to a written or verbal stimulus; secondly, to demand of the student a degree of cognitive activity which may go some way to breaking the S-R habit; thirdly, to promote the association of a given form with a typical context of use.

International Time Zones

This is an information-transfer exercise designed to contextualise the "Present Continuous (BE + Ving). Each student is provided with a copy of an I.T.Z. map or the same is shown on the overhead projector. The teacher states as follows: it is now x a.m./p.m. at U.P.M. and, in city y, people are probably Ving.

		+/- hours	activity
sleep	let y =	Cairo	
get up		L.A.	
have breakfast		Peking	
go to work		London	
have lunch		Karachi	
go home		New York	
watch TV		Tehran	
yawn		Moscow	
go to bed		Buenos Aires	
		Wellington	

First of all, by eliciting answers from the students, the +/- hours column is tabulated for each city. This done, they are asked what people are probably doing in city y. This does require some cognitive rather than simply mechanical activity on the part of the students. When the tables are complete, the students are asked: in what country are people probably Ving? Having done this or a similar exercise the student may begin to associate BE(present)+Ving with an action occuring in the (descriptive) context of a particular place and at a specified time.

Mimes

In this exercise the teacher-as-actor provides a visible, actualised context for the "Present Continuous." The author has found that this exercise provides excellent light relief in the last few minutes of a lesson and, remarkably, even leaves the students hungry for more. Clearly, however, classroom management has to be borne in mind.

The teacher tells the students: describe each action I'm doing and then tell me what I'm doing. The following are suggestions(although the possibilities are legion):

threading a needle
focusing a pair of binoculars
threading a reel-to-reel tape
starting a car
waking up
reading a newspaper while drinking coffee/tea
changing a car tyre
making a cup of coffee
marking students' work

Results

This exercise attempts to provide a context for the use of the "Present Perfect" (HAVE (present) + Ved) with the adverb "just." The teacher makes a statement and the students have to explain why, using just and the Present Perfect. To make the task clearer, he could begin thus, "You arrive at the airport 1 minute after your plane has left. What do you say?", eliciting, inter alia, "I've just missed it."

Statement	Why? (+ possible answer)
There is no bus.	It's just gone.
Some of the prisoners are free.	They've just escaped.
A 747 is climbing overhead.	It's just taken off.
My plane is here now.	It's just landed.
I don't smoke now.	I've just given up smoking.
I'm greeting my old friend.	I've just met him.
The student is waiting outside the door.	He's just arrived.

The author is aware that this exercise is dangerously close to a "drill" but it does in fact oblige the student to think of contextually appropriate verbs and forms.

Mimes Revisited

This time the teacher asks the students: watch me, tell me what I'm doing and when I've finished, tell me what I've just done. Below are some suggestions additional to the above:

a cut finger	an insect sting	turning an instrument
peeling onions	take-off (in an airplane)	
a car crash	playing a cassette-tape	

This obliges the students to follow the process and verbalise its immediate result with a contextually and grammatically appropriate verb form.

One Day in the Life of Ahmed

This exercise is designed, through the use of information-transfer, to provide a narrative context for the "Past Simple and, additionally, for the "Present Perfect.

The teacher tabulates the following on the blackboard or overhead projector:

Time	Activity (Sat.)	Activity (Thurs.)
6am		
8		
10		
12 Noon		
2pm		
4		
6		
8		
10		
12 midnight		

which could be exploited as follows:

a) Teacher asks a student: what did you do at xam/pm on Sat./Thurs.?

b) Teacher asks other students: what did he do at xam/pm on Sat./Thurs., randomly selecting from the table.

c)Teacher asks other students: it is 5 past/after xam/pm. What has he just done?

d) Teacher says: now tell me about Ahmed's day last Sat/Thurs.

e) As in (d), but erasing/covering progressively.

UPM MAP

A further exercise for the "Past Simple" makes use of the map provided for O.E.P. students. The teacher asks the students the following questions: how did I get from the Main Gate to

1) the E.L.C.
2) the Police Station
3) N. Compound
4) the New Stadium
5) the New Student Cafeteria
6) the Dhahran Mosque
7) the Gymnasium
8) Building 10
9) the Jebel Mosque
10) Building 1

A similar exercise could of course be developed with any map.

My Journey to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

In this exercise an apparently interesting context is provided for the "Past Simple" in the form of the author's journey from Manchester, U.K. to Dhahran, S.A. On the blackboard or O.H.P. the following outline is shown:

5a.m. - alarm-clock - get up - breakfast - 6.30a.m. car - airport - coffee - goodbye - 8.30a.m. airplane from Manchester - London 9.20a.m. - check in at Heathrow - Saudia Tristar - 11a.m. leave London - 1p.m. Geneva - over Med. & Egypt -9p.m. arrive Riyadh - 11p.m. arrive Dhahran - customs - 2a.m. arrive U.P.M.

The students are asked to flesh out the above (or any similar) outline, creating a narrative context for the tense in question. Others are asked to re-tell, while others do the same, but the teacher progressively erases the details.

Who Did What When?

Herein the teacher uses Arab history to provide a different and rather more difficult narrative context for the "Past Simple." The following information is provided in tabular form:

Who	Did	What	When (A.H.)
the Caliphs		news service	30
"		coins	76
the Egyptians		sugar	92
Abu Ja'far		sulphuric acid	102
the Chinese		paper-making to the Middle East	134
Jabir		true chemistry	168
Baghdad		state paper-mills	178
Fez		the capital of Morocco	193
Al-Khwarazmi		the word "algebra"	195
Baghdad		a school of astronomy	198
Kaldi		coffee	236
Ibn Rushd		comment. on Aristotle & Plato	558-92
Ibn Battuta		on his travels	725
Ibn Khaldun		Al-Muqaddamat	777-81

The students select from a list of base-form verbs which are provided elsewhere.

translate	set off	strike	produce	invent
introduce	discover	plant	become	teach
write	began	coin	establish	

When all the details are fully tabulated and understood, the verbs can be progressively erased on the asking of such questions as "What did the Egyptians do in 92 A.H.? When did the Caliphs introduce a news service? Who set off on his travels in 725 A.H.? (if the students know Who(s) +V).

Recipes

Whereby a typical context of process is provided for the "Present Passive" (BE present +Ved). The information is provided in base-form verbs, as is appropriate to instructional contexts. On the blackboard or overhead projector is written:

Making tea	How tea is made
1) warm the teapot	1)
2) put in 2 teabags	2)
3) pour in boiling water	3)
4) leave it for 5 minutes	4)
5) pour the tea into a cup	5)
6) add milk & sugar, if necessary	6)

The teacher says: "tell me how tea is made" and writes up the elicited answers, after which the details can be progressively erased if additional practice is needed. Other recipes suggested could be:

Ful Medammes

1)Soak the beans
2)Cook them until they are soft.
3)Drain them.
4)Add crushed garlic, oil, lemon juice, parsley, salt and pepper.

Tabbouleh

1)Soak the burghul in water.
2)Drain and squeeze out the water.
3)Spread the burghul out to dry.
4)Mix the burghul with chopped onions.
5)Add salt, pepper, parsley, mint, oil and lemon juice.

English Dictionaries

This exercise is an attempt to contextualise comparative and superlative forms of adjectives. The teacher provides dittoed sheets with the following axes, but dictates the details (updated, if necessary).

	O.A.L.D. OF Current English	Collins E.L.D.	Longman D.C.E.	O.E.D. +Supplements
Date	1948	1974	1978	1982
No. of Words	50,000	30,000	55,000	750,000
Examples	50,000	25,000	69,000	5,000,000
Drawings	1,000	200	1,000	0
Appendices	10	9	9	0
Page size	13.5x21.5cm	13x21cm	13.5x21.5	23x29cm
No. of pages	1,055	640	1,303	9,000
Price(S.Pds.)	4.95	1.95	4.75	350.00

He then says:

1) Tell me about each dictionary.
2) Which is the oldest/newest/cheapest/most expensive?
3) Which has the most/the fewest pages?
4) Which has the biggest/the smallest pages?
5) Which has more pages - the LDCE or the OALD?
6) Which has fewer pages - the OED or the Collins?
7) Which is older - the Collins or the Longman?
8) Which is newer - the OED or the OALD?
9) Which is more interesting - the OED or the Longman?
10) Which would you choose and why?

The teacher gives each student a piece of paper on which the following is written and to which the student should give the fullest possible answer in a specified form (permutation may follow).

1) If the student next to you dropped his pen, what would you do?
2) If this building were on fire now.....
3) If you found a gold ring on the ground .....
4) If you returned from the bank, counted your money and found the bank-clerk had given you 2000 SR too much.....
5) If you were a teacher and saw a student cheating in an exam.....
6) If you arrived in London airport for the first time and wanted to get to the Saudi Consulate.....
7) If you were driving carefully and somebody ran into you.....
8) If you went to your cafeteria and they gave you horrible food.....
9) If a friend borrowed 1000 SR two months ago and still hadn't returned it..
10) If a large fierce dog suddenly attacked you.....
11) If your telephone rang and a strange voice answered....
12) If you had 500,000 SR and 6 months holiday....
13) If you had to teach Arabic to a foreigner....
14) If your airplane was 15 hours late....
15) If you were left in an unknown empty place....
16) If you had 24 hours left to live....

The teacher could think up many more such 'if's', and the author has found that this exercise evokes a high degree of originality, humour and thought from most students.

ENGLISH FOR FOREIGN LEARNERS OF PRIMARY TECHNOLOGY

by J. A. Rimmer and M. J. Scott
Evans Brothers Limited, London, 1981

reviewed by Wolfgang Kahler

This two-stage course designed for students in vocational technology with two to three years of general purpose English consists of a teacher's and student's manual supplemented by two readers. This review is of the first-stage materials minus the reader, which is unavailable.

The student's book is divided into fifteen compact units which deal with the type of language skills required for a technical job, specifically in the area of tools, instruments and materials, technical drawings and activities in different workshops (sheet metal, electrical, automobile, building and carpentry). Unit 15, a general revision, includes three progress exams based on the previous units.

The explicitness of the teacher's book should prove very helpful to new ESP teachers. Various approaches to presenting the materials with an emphasis on learning through doing, are stressed. With respect to the presentation and drilling of new grammatical structures, however, the teacher is left to his own ingenuity.

The salient features of English for Learners of Primary Technology are: emphasis on learning through doing, including group activities and role play, usability, responsiveness, and good illustrations. Additionally, its avoidance of culturally sensitive topics (largely by the nature of its technical bias) would make it a useful package for a non-academic training institution in the Arab speaking world for which it seems, especially, to have been designed.

HEINEMANN SCIENCE AND TECHNICAL READERS

Electricity:	Jim Jardine, 1981
Energy:	Jim Jardine, 1981
Flight:	John Atkinson and Maliha Azar, 1980
Industrial Safety:	C. J. Moore and R. V. Allott, 1981
Petroleum Upstream:	Hywel Coleman, 1980

reviewed by Dave Brigham

Publishers of ESL materials are becoming increasingly aware of the demand for graded scientific and technical readers. One such publisher, Heinemann Educational Books, has published a series of elementary readers which merits consideration for use as classroom texts or supplementary material.

Despite the apparent diversity of titles in this series, the format and general quality of each book are comparable. The physical appearance of the books themselves is inviting with each reader boasting a slick, attractive cover and a manageable number of pages (about thirty-five). Between the covers one finds a layout resembling a textbook, or perhaps a technical manual, as each reader is equipped with a table of contents, a wealth of headings and subheadings, and an abundance of excellent illustrations and photographs. Finally, each book concludes with an activities section followed by a vocabulary index.

The main strength of this series clearly lies in its use of illustrations to present technical vocabulary. In Flight, for example, the description and function of five cockpit instruments are compresserd into two very short paragraphs (page 7). Ordinarily, a student would find it extremely difficult to cope with such a high density of specialized vocabulary, but fortunately, the accompanying illustrations in Flight provide a visual dimension which considerably lightens the vocabulary burden.

The main weakness of this series lies in its approach to the development of reading skills. On the back cover of each reader, the editor expresses his belief that skill development ".....s achieved within a graded and balanced scheme of language controls." This naive faith in the virtues of language controls may explain why there is no provision for instruction in such important reading skills as surveying, predicting, previewing, and using context clues to identify word meanings. In addition, it may also explain why no provision is made for the systematic development of skimming, scanning, or close reading skills. Instead each book contains an activities section which consists of a hodgepodge of questions requiring students to do a variety of language activities such as writing definitions of new vocabulary, drawing

diagrams, and describing processes. Unfortunately, these activities do not have the saving grace of being comprehensive enough to adequately assess the students' comprehension of each chapter. Consequently, the teacher must not only devise his own materials to teach the specific reading skills the students will need, but he must also design his own scheme for assessing comprehension.

Finally, I would like to add that even though this series of readers does have definite limitations, these limitations can be overcome. The resourceful teacher will find that each reader has ample material on which to build.

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. . . FROM THE EDITOR

TEAM readers may notice in these pages a shift in emphasis from previous issues. While we will certainly continue to tap the considerable talent from within the ELC, we will also actively encourage wider participation from our readers throughout the Kingdom and around the world. In so doing, we hope to make TEAM a better forum for sharing professional ideas and research.

This issue is a step in that direction.

From Venezuela, we have the first part of a highly relevant paper written in a very straightforward way which was originally presented at the 1983 TESOL Convention. The author, Patricia Thomas, is on the faculty of an institute of petroleum studies where she teaches a course for future administrators and executives of the national oil industry. She is currently writing a reading text with exercises.

From Germany, we are pleased to publish in full an article which first appeared in part in the September 1982 issue of the TEA Newsletter. We are grateful to its editor, Janet Ross, for reprint permission, and we are delighted that the authors, Douglas Stevenson and Richard Brunt, have consented to share their work with us.

From Australia comes an article of interest to those of us who teach English to speakers of Arabic. Stuart Campbell, currently with Sydney Technical College and Macquarie University, has a background in linguistics and speaks Russian in addition to Arabic and English. We appreciate his insights into potential interference from Arabic to English.

From Oman, we have a textbook review which coincides very nicely with the theme of the Thomas article. The reviewer, N. McBeath, is a Flight Lieutenant at the English Language School of the Sultan of Oman's Air Force.

Finally, from our own English Language Center come reviews written by Robert Hilden and Lee Tesdell, and a technique written by Thomas Stableford. Bob is a 2-year veteran of UPM, while Lee joined our faculty just this year. Lee used the text he reviewed with his students at his previous post in the USA at Iowa State University. Tom, another two-year veteran, is fast becoming a regular contributor to the Techniques Department.

. . . TO THE EDITOR

SUGGESTIONS, PLEASE!

Dear Editor:

Thank you for the back copies, which I have read with interest.

I am interested in group use of computers, particularly micros, with EFL students. I assume from the articles that UPM-Dhahran uses a main-frame with terminals in solo-made instruction. My particular form of obsession with these dinky toys of micros is one which has occupied other minds with a passing question, but which no-one seems to have answered. It is that if computers are so ideally suited for communication (as has been alleged) and for training people to learn, why aren't more people writing communicative English lessons? And given that some people (e.g. Tim Johns and John Higgins at Birmingham) are doing this, does it (a) work with groups, provoking free discussion in English; (b) activate passive vocabulary?

If your English Language Unit have any suggestions on these points, I would be very pleased to receive them.

Mrs. Anne R. Belch
Sale, Cheshire, England

TECHNIQUES, PLEASE!

Most techniques I've seen in ESL journals seem to have been designed for publication rather than actual classroom use. That is, they are gimmicky, extravagant, and require more preparation and classroom time than the results merit. For example, I recently came across a 'fool-proof' method for teaching past perfect. Considering the length of it, the writer obviously spent the first half of his life preparing it, and will surely have to spend at least the second half teaching it! At the other extreme, I know of one ingenious soul who teaches active/passive by whacking a student over the head with a textbook. Very quick. Very effective. 'The teacher hits; the student is hit; the student hits; etc.' And everybody gets into the act (interaction), and gets the point (living English).

For something in between, I'm sure there are many experienced teachers among your readers who have a store of clever, but simple, ideas and techniques that are effective, and do not require a Hollywood production or seaport brawl to present. Perhaps TEAM, which I've found to be practical as well as interesting, could persuade these teachers to share with us their favorite chartless, diagram-less, kit-less techniques -- those they use in class at a moment's notice to clarify a point rather than belabor it

Kenneth E. Lane
Saudia Airlines Training, Jeddah

ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL AUXILIARY LANGUAGE

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(This is Part I of a two-part article. Part II will appear in the next issue.)

English has become a vital instrument of communication in the world. It has transcended the confines of the countries where it is spoken as a mother-tongue to become an auxiliary or additional language used intra-nationally and internationally. It might even be called, as someone suggested, a de-nationalized language. Consider the following:

1. There are now more non-native than native speakers of English.
2. It has official status in 33 non-English mother-tongue countries.
3. It is the foreign language most studied in the world.
4. It is the non-native language most frequently used as the medium of instruction instead of, or in addition to, the mother-tongue.
5. It is THE language of international shipping, air tower control, computer programming and nuclear physics. The majority of technical and science-related publications are in English, and even when the article or journal is in another language, an abstract in English is normally provided.
6. English is a language of broadcasting in 76 countries.
7. It is the language used in business and commerce and the transfer of technology the world over. The internal communications of the multinational corporations, no matter where in the world their offices are located, are written in English. English is one of the languages used by international organizations and agencies even when there are no English-speaking nation members. (For example, the OPEC bulletin is written in English.) For young people the world over, English is the language of entertainment and music.
8. And finally, there is a growing literature written in English by writers for whom English is not the mother-tongue but who write in English to reach a wider audience.

THE NEW ENGLISHES AND THE STANDARD NORMS

What has been the result of the spread of English? Obviously, it has produced a great diversity of forms of what have been called "The New Englishes." Does this diversity present problems for mutual intelligibility? Will it end in the disintegration of the language, as Burchfield argues it did in the case of Latin? Peter Strevens, on the contrary, argues that English is quite unlike Latin in that it is in no sense the language of a single global nation state. There is thus no "national" language to disintegrate. The variety of forms is a consequence and not a cause of social diversity (Strevens, 1980).

Generally speaking, intelligibility is not a problem because the majority of speakers need to be understood and to understand only within their own social and linguistic community. The problem occurs when a speaker from one linguistic group needs to communicate with a speaker from another group. There are mutually unintelligible forms of English as L1; now there are added to these mutually unintelligible forms of English as L2. In the past, prestigious standardized L1 forms of English developed; now there are standardized local or regional forms of L2 English developing.

Ghana, for example, is a multilingual society where English is used as an official language in government, education and the armed forces. English serves as a lingua franca if there is no Ghanaian language common to speakers (Ure, 1976). There, where the exchange in English is between Ghanaians, a local form has developed and its use is expected and felt to be appropriate as a model in radio broadcasting, education and so on. Regional standard forms have also developed in other parts of Africa and in India.

Such regional standard forms are now being recognized. In Togo, for example, English is learnt as a foreign language. The government there has decided to select as a pedagogical model West African English rather than British English. Thus, in those areas of the world where there are standard regional forms, L1 or L2, there is now a movement towards the use of these for pedagogical purposes, since it is considered unrealistic and inappropriate to attempt to impose a universal pedagogical model.

Linguistic variation springs from many sources: geographic variables, social variables and individual variation. Despite the extreme complexity of this phenomenon, we are still able to describe and recognize a linguistic community as one where there is "a high order of compatibility between the rule systems of a number of individuals" (Lester, 1978) and where we have some sense of a "common core." This may be linguistically debatable, but that it exists is undeniable.

Furthermore, there is a sense of a common core in a more normative sense which is usually established by and disseminated through the written language and "derived from the practices of the upper range of the social/economic/educational scale," that is, a "prestigious educated norm" (Lester, 1978).

Within his narrow linguistic community/group, the speaker of a dialect, a creole or a particular social register has no problems about being understood. It is only as the need to communicate in a wider community with speakers of other codes/dialects, etc. that competence in the "standard educated norm" becomes important. "Global mutual intelligibility in English is maintained by those who need it; those who don't need it, don't achieve it. And those who need it, achieve and maintain it by using the same global dialect, Standard English, because it will support any accent you choose to use with it." (Strevens 1980).

Let us take the example of a Trinidadian child living in Trinidad. He learns initially the basolect spoken by his family. His parents, however, are aware of the more prestigious standard norm, the acrolect, and consciously try to "correct" his speech. When he begins to attend school, the pressure becomes greater to conform to the educated, academically acceptable, norm. Later, he goes to Britain to university. There he learns to switch into a perfect standard RP British English. Probably the speaker will retain the ability to switch between his Trinidadian acrolect and standard British and still understand the basolect, whether he still speaks it or not.

At this point it becomes obvious that the only viable stance on this question of the status of regional and local forms on the one hand, and standardized prestigious norms on the other, is to adopt a sociolinguistic perspective, accepting that dialects, class and group codes, creoles and prestigious norms exist side by side and will continue to do so, whenever they are functionally differentiated. Local and non-local forms continue to exist side by side because they reflect local and non-local values.

Sociolinguistic investigation has shown that where solidarity factors exist, consistent non-standard local norms are maintained. Where there is a breakup of close-knit, territorially based network structures and an emphasis on upward mobility, there will be found a move toward a non-local, more prestigious standardized norm (Fishman 1972; Milroy 1980).

Thus, as Hymes (1972) pointed out, speakers do not function in a homogeneous speech community, but rather in a heterogenous one where there is differential competence among speakers and where socio-cultural factors play an important role.

This can be seen operating most clearly in societies like Jamaica, where there is a whole range of varieties ranging from the deepest creole at the one end to standard British-type English at the other. These varieties connect the two extremes along a chain of mutual intelligibility at intermediate points on the social scale.

The individual speaker will have a wider or narrower competence in terms of control of these varieties according to his expressive needs and his socio-cultural and professional roles. Thus, there is no implication that a standard form is "superior" to a regional, local or group form; it is simply more widely intelligible. The more competent we are in a standard form, the more intelligible we are to a great number of people, in the wider linguistic community. This is true of both the L1 and the L2 speaker. The forms of language used at different points will reflect the expanding communicative requirements of the speaker.

Thus, just as the individual living in a bilingual community learns to switch to a different language and the individual in a diglossic community learns to switch to a different variety, according to social role and communicative function, so, too, the educated speaker of an L2 regional form is able to switch to a more internationally understood standardized form. The standardized form fulfills for him a different communicative function.

INTERNATIONAL ENGLISH

What will an "international standard English" be like? Mark Lester (1978) suggests that it will be a universal English-based contact-language made up of contact languages. It will not be made up just of L1 and L2 forms of English but also of foreign language/English contact forms such as Japanese/English or Hawaiian/English and so on.

According to Lester, this International English will have a "definable educated common core, sufficient for sophisticated communication between speakers of different native languages." He predicts that there will be a range of variation in the speech of educated non-native speakers of English (L2 and FL) but that, "whatever linguistic differences there are between native speakers of English and International English," they will be overshadowed by the register characteristics of educated speakers...; large and carefully used vocabulary; sophisticated linkages (e.g. moreover,if,then) between independent clauses and/or sentences; and a high degree of sentence complexity as measured by the amount of embedding" (p.13). He adds that the biggest difference will be in phonology. However, he suggests that it is probable that the written form will be very close indeed to the written form of a native speaker of English, guaranteeing a degree of stability and standardization.

If we apply the concepts of Systemic Functional grammars to this question of the probable form of "International English," I think we will have to try to see it not as a package of highly structured, pre-determinable sets of rules, but rather as a flexible model made up of highly complex, interrelated and fluctuating sets of systems where linguistic units will be related to social and cultural context in both a probabilistic and absolute way.

Obviously, a great deal of research is needed to understand what happens when L1, L2 and FL speakers of English attempt to communicate in English. If, as Lamb says, the "conceptual system's categorization of all experience limits the ability of any human of any culture to perceive reality directly," if our instruments for knowing the world get in the way of knowing the world, how much more complicated will it be to understand what happens when individuals from different linguistic communities, all non-English native speakers, are obliged to communicate in English? It is possible that problems of communication will occur because of differentiation in the usage of non-native speakers of English in lexicon (innovations plus new meanings for English words), syntax, phonology, stylistic features and discourse organization; that these features will be most marked where the speaker finds the need for forms which reflect his own culture and ideology; that even when the educated non-native speaker learns to control a more internationally intelligible

form of English, these features will remain when he wishes to make evident his own culture and ideology; and that his speech will be marked by a definable accent, his badge of identity, indicating his origin and his membership in a given community.

INTERNATIONAL ENGLISH AND TEFL: OBJECTIVES, MODELS AND THE LEARNING PROCESS

What has this to do with the English language teacher? To start with, there is the eternal question of what model should be taught. In Venezuela, we are not in an L2 area, so the chosen model is that of the native speaker (American rather than British). Now, "in native-speaker oriented classrooms the goal is to speak like a native /but/ for most classrooms in the world this goal is totally unrealistic" (Mark Lester 1970). Thus, failure is built into the program.

However, once we consider English as an international language, the perspective changes completely. To the question "Which model?" the answer may be "Any native model," or even, "Not necessarily a native model" (L1). Now at least the choice is seen in a wider framework of various possibilities among which it is possible to select one that is politically, socially and ideologically the most acceptable (e.g. West Indian English for Venezuela).

Furthermore, the EFL speaker no longer needs to feel he has to "speak like a native." So, just as Trinidadian L1 speakers of a variety of English or West African speakers of English L2 reflect their national and cultural identities in their form of English, so then we must admit that an EFL speaker may equally retain his identity and reflect it in his form of English. This is not a prediction or a justification -- this is a description of reality.

Perhaps the best model for a non-native speaker of English is that of the most educated and articulate speaker of English from his own linguistic group. The only criterion of acceptability will be one of intelligibility. Initially, in the early stages of learning English, the goal will be intelligibility among the speakers of the native language. As the requirements and interests of the speaker expand, so he will move along the scale of intelligibility to reach a level of international intelligibility.

Thus, our immediate goal as language teachers will no longer be to create native speakers. We will have a more realistic aim: "defective but effective communication" as Strevens (1980) has put it. This is, at the same time, a realistic aim, a vindication of the non-native teacher and the elimination of the in-built failure factor that existed when we demanded native-like performance. Equally important, it respects the identity of the learner. No Venezuelan, unless he is alienated from his own culture, is going to want to speak English so that he is indistinguishable from an American or an Englishman. This is particularly true at certain times when there are specific political reasons. Right now, for example, it is doubtful that an Argentinian would wish to be indistinguishable from an Englishman or a Nicaraguan from an American when using English to communicate.

At some time or other, the non-native or L2 speaker of English is going to want to express his own ideology, assumptions, and cultural basis and not those of a native English speaker. And yet, as language teachers, we have been constantly demanding of our students that they express a culture not their own of which they have scarcely any experience.

Another eternal problem in teaching is that of motivation. In language teaching we have been told, and have believed, that effective learning is in great part dependent on the learner's full engagement with the target language. We have the studies of Gardner and Lambert on integrative vs. instrumental motivation and those of Lambert on language learning as an activity involving countless affective variables to support this argument.

According to other theorists, without acculturation, effective learning cannot take place. Schuman (1978) says:

> "It is my opinion that whether we use the audiolingual method, the cognitive-code method or an individualized method, we will achieve equally unsatisfactory results in the long run because language learning is not a matter of acculturation, and where acculturation cannot take place...we cannot expect to achieve much more than we are in our foreign language programs."

But if English is no longer to be regarded as the preserve of the British, or the North Americans, or the Australians, but as an international auxiliary language, we must ask: Acculturation to what? With what culture will the learner be expected to identify?

Once we think of English as being used for international purposes, rather than American or British purposes, then concepts and questions of integrative motivation and acculturation become inapplicable and inappropriate.

Problems such as those associated with the identity crisis when learning/teaching a foreign language (especially if the learner/teacher feels that the model of the language belongs to an ideologically 'non-grata' country) are automatically eliminated. We no longer have to worry about integrative motivation.

This has been borne out by studies done in India. Lukman (1972) challenged the theory that integrative motivation promoted better learning than instrumental motivation. With his Marathi-speaking Indian students, he found the latter type of motivation gave significantly higher results. Likewise, Kachru (1972) noted that English perceived as an international language can be acquired very successfully for instrumental reasons and that for developing countries it is preferable to British English with its negative associations.

Thus, negative attitudes, problems of cultural identity, ethnocentricism -- all these can be avoided or minimized when the language learning process does not involve identification with a nation or country, when there is no need to take on a British or an American identity.

Not only that. English, when perceived as an auxiliary instrument of international communication, can be an effective aid to the understanding of other cultures (cultures other than those of native English speaking countries) and to an understanding of socio-cultural variation in the world.

Another advantage of this perspective of teaching English as an international language is that it takes us away from a conception of English as a monolithic linguistic system, the speakers of which all possess an identical linguistic competence.

Instead, we have a sociolinguistic perspective of English as an international contact language made up of an interrelated network of codes or varieties (local, regional, national, international) that the speaker uses according to his diverse knowledge, needs and purposes. We have an idea of language which is authentic to the expressive needs of the speaker, reflecting his conceptual patterns, his cultural identity, and so on. This suggests to us teachers that we cannot impose on our students what and how they wish to communicate. We can perhaps, with their help, specify the communicative needs, the functions they will probably want to fulfill, and the language they will need to attain communicative competence. Our syllabuses can follow these lines but they cannot be static or rigid; they must be flexible, open-ended and responsive to the authentic expressive needs of the learner.

We have to let the learner use the language which is authentic to his needs, even if at first it is groping language. We need a methodology, as Brumfit (1981) has said, which will enable the learner to use the language in relationships and situations not imposed on him but actively, as a product of his own needs. "This is a question of educational philosophy and not merely techniques" (Brumfit 1981).

Here the anthropologists, the ethnomethodologists and the sociolinguists (Douglas, Hymes, Labov) can give us useful indications about the way language functions as one of several interactional systems used for self-expressive purposes. The student will feel happy and confident if he can become fluent and authentic to himself as well as internationally intelligible.

Authentic discourse will then be seen not as the authentic discourse of native speech or writing, but as authentic to the learner's needs. Appropriateness, accuracy and fluency are to be judged in terms of the learner's communicative goals and perceived according to a developmental concept (interlanguage). Just as an L1 speaker of a regional variety of English or an L2 speaker of English learns to control a standard variety when he needs to communicate within a wider community, so we should see the learner of English as a foreign language as engaging in a learning process where initially he will use many contact forms (e.g. Spanish). But as he moves along the developmental ladder, he will go on to learn more internationally intelligible forms. This is not to say that he will cease to use those forms that he feels reflect his particular cultural and conceptual modes, or that he will abandon his accent, his badge of identity, completely. In short, both the goals we set as language teachers and the process of learning which we expect from our students will be fundamentally and qualitatively different.

As far as the latter is concerned, we will now see the EFL learner, like the L1 dialect speaker and L2 speaker of a regional form, beginning with a version of the language in which he mixes elements of his own local code/native language with elements derived from his own version of English and elements belonging to the standard forms learnt in the classroom; then, gradually he will move along the pathway of competence to more standard and internationally intelligible and acceptable forms.

We will have a new attitude towards "error," or rather the limits of "correction," of the learner. This will now be interpreted differently as the brake he himself unconsciously applies when he finds that he can communicate successfully what he wants or when he wishes to maintain his own cultural identity. That is to say, we must accept that a Venezuelan using English will want to express concepts which, being Venezuelan, will not necessarily fit into the English that an American uses to express his North American concepts.

We will expect the learner to move forward and achieve linguistic and communicative competence in terms of his own communicative needs. What would be acceptable in the language of the pupil in the first years of school will not be acceptable in that of the professional speaking at international congresses.

(The second part of Ms Thomas's article as well as references for both parts will appear in the next issue of TEAM.)

'PUDDING ON THE STYLE': ON COUNTERING CLICHES OF AMERICAN AND BRITISH ENGLISH

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One of the most dramatic yet least considered changes in the post-World War II status of teaching English abroad is the degree to which English has become an international language -- a language of wider communication -- rather than the language of Great Britain or the United States. Traditionally, those studying English in non-English speaking countries were expected to learn one or the other of the two major varieties, American English (AmE) or British English (BrE). Mixing of the two at any linguistic or communicative level was frowned upon, and a quick glance at the "other" variety was considered sufficient to explain differences. Few attempts were made to go beyond the cliché and stereotype stage. For instance, although British Leyland has (BrE have?) long had a truck division, generations of students have been informed that "we say lorry, and in American English they say truck." Similarly, but more worrisomely, many non-native and not a few native EFL teachers continue to hold the widespread notion that AmE consists largely of neologisms, slang, "deviant" spellings, contrived advertising forms and spellings (e.g Portakabin), punning word games (e.g. pudding on the style), and incorrect, cacophonous pronunciations (dance, etc.).

Today, even in older British-influenced, one-variety systems, the once received view that only one variety will do (and do very nicely) is suffering severe and continuing setbacks. Physical communication (the universality of car travel, international flights, etc.) and the tremendous growth of mass printing and electronic media have meant that nearness is no longer just a geographical concept, but one of time and influence as well. One could also mention the fact that about three-quarters of all books published in English are published in AmE, or for that matter, that U.K. publishers such as Penguin more and more often print in AmE because of the lower printing costs in the U.S. and the much larger market. Or bluntly stated, one could simply look at population figures, GNPs, U.S. dominance in the sciences (including economics and medicine) since World War II, or even the number of American authors who have been honored with the Nobel Prize for Literature, in the same time span.

For all these reasons and many others as well, the Shavian tones long associated with a common language ("England and America are two countries separated by a common language") have been considerably mitigated, at least among professionals in EFL education. Remarkably, it has become increasingly difficult to separate the two varieties by giving key contrasts. This is especially true among the young, and especially among the British. Is, for

example, the decline of the once dominant /sj/ in BrE (Gimson 1981:255) in favor of /ʃ/ in words such as issue to be attributed to that famous "Mid-Atlantic" accent which is always, somehow, heard east of the Atlantic and west of the Channel? Or, is it simply because almost all popular music groups such as ABBA sing with an AmE ("international English"?) pronunciation? When Oxford University Press states that henceforth, all of its volumes will spell gramme as gram, or when one hears have a nice day on phone-in British programmes (BrE now uses program for computers, etc.), is this the insidious Americanism taking root, or simply the new BrE blossoming? Randolph Quirk's oft-repeated example of this phenomenon is well-worth repeating. Where once only Americans were capable of throwing rocks (Quirk's British generation being limited to throwing stones), his students today not only throw rocks with ease, but also have absolutely no AmE connotations when doing so. Further examples could be given; however, the point is that even syntactic forms (e.g. AmE Do you have...? as opposed to BrE Have you...?) are so rapidly assimilated into BrE, that to keep the two separate, one must rely upon historical rather than present-day descriptions. When Queen Elizabeth (II) uses due to in what BrE once considered the AmE sense of "on account of," what the Queen's English is, is a matter of theory rather than practice. And in practice, the position taken by a British dictionary of high repute, Chambers, is becoming more common: "In this newest version of the dictionary (1972) the label '(U.S.),' formerly used to distinguish purely American English, has been dropped almost entirely" (xii).

Almost every foreign learner of English, therefore, will be faced with the necessity of acquiring receptive competence for both varieties. A high likelihood also exists that he or she must possess productive competence (e.g. for businessmen and women who would sell their products abroad). Because of the historical nature of the spread of English, it is the traditional British one-variety EFL systems which are most strongly affected by the fact that "their" language can no longer be equated with the world's first foreign language. It must be stressed, nonetheless, that neither variety can support the folklinguistic notion that it is "more correct" or even "older" than the other. Moreover, those who would still maintain claims of superiority today will sooner or later be met by ridicule from both sides of the Atlantic (for example, try tracing the etymologies of color or tire; see Chaucer for I guess and the King James Bible, before throwing stones/rocks at others' judgments!). The problem, however, is that old cliches and stereotypes, some according to Quirk (1972) reaching back to the first British colonial-baiting games after the (BrE) War of American Independence, continue to strongly affect views of AmE and thereby lessen the chances of informing students about both varieties, and about whatever differences do exist.

From questionnaires (both ours and others') and from everyday experience we were able to compile a list of some of the most frequent clichés held by German pupils, students, and teachers of English. It goes without saying -- but perhaps should be said after all -- that almost all of these clichés are "at large" even among well-educated German speakers of English, and almost all are negative towards AmE. Our own judg(e)ments have been supported by oral and written questionnaires administered in German by university seniors to other

Germans. Among the most frequent clichés about AmE/BrE differences:

- clear differences in spelling exist and these spelling differences are regular (e.g. theater and theatre);
- clear differences in vocabulary exist and these differences are regular (e.g. truck and lorry; apartment and flat; vacation and holiday);
- a very large number of words exist which can be termed "Americanisms" and which are understood or used only in the U.S. (e.g. cop, bathroom, automobile);
- AmE is strongly marked by slang usages, while BrE uses slang seldom, if at all;
- AmE is extremely fond of word games and puns ("pun and games?"), while BrE is more "serious" or "dignified";
- AmE constantly changes accepted spellings, especially in advertising (e.g. kat, kar, xtra, Xmas), while this is rare or unusual in BrE);
- AmE is much freer with mechanics (that is, punctuation, date, or address forms, etc.) while BrE has "correct" and established forms (e.g., BrE would have 1st December, 1982 and AmE Dec. 1, 1982).

These cliché categories are but a few of those which we observed, and many others exist. There are those dealing with syntax (e.g., that AmE omits forms more often: BrE speakers seldom notice that he could have done with the AmE "it" omitted is only BrE); pronunciation (e.g., it is assumed that either does not normally receive both pronunciations among educated speakers in either variety); so-called errors or sociolinguistic markers (e.g., it is assumed that "r-less" pronunciations will also be marked as "higher" in AmE, or that the "et" pronunciation of ate is also an educated variant in AmE); vocabulary distribution (e.g. AmE only has iall: assumedly, Americans sing "Fall in New York..." or "...those fall leaves, drift by my window..."!), and so on.

We had learned through hard experience that these clichés have a very great staying power. Stating that they were clichés, stereotypes, or well-established folklinguistic notions was not enough by any means. To make matters worse, most EFL textbooks in use in West German schools actually teach such so-called differences, and how could one doubt the textbook ? Finally, our system is plagued like so many others, by those infamous "American/English" dictionaries, "translations," and handbooks which all support the fiction that many clear differences exist which, in fact, do not. Did you know that in American they say automobile, and in English they say car? We didn't either, and neither did the AA, the British Automobile Association. But then we have not had the benefit of such AmE/BrE "aids".

Given this background, we decided that a departure from the usual lecture format and teaching technique was called for. We decided that because of the tenacity with which such clichés were maintained, it was necessary to administer a pedagogical shock to our students, albeit one with high voltage and low amperage. Until our students were convinced that many of their own clichés were clichés, little progress could be made towards actual comparisons. We proceeded as follows:

First, in preliminary lectures, we stressed the fact that so much misinformation circulates about AmE/BrE differences because (1) individuals making comparisons seldom know both varieties well enough to do so, and professionally trained "duets" (e.g., Markwardt and Quirk) are the exception rather than the rule. (2) Most discussions tended to stress apparent differences (e.g., gas station versus petrol station instead of the common form, filling station). (3) Many, if not most, comparisons are made across levels and registers (e.g., a word such as dude is held to be equivalent to person, etc.). (4) It is often forgotten that in reality, there is no such thing as "General American" and similarly, "British English" or "RP" are also abstractions. Therefore, the "analysis" of abstractions or the specification thereof can only produce results with no predictive validity. To state that Americans pronounce either one way (with the vowel sound in beat) and British speakers another (i.e. as in bite) results in large numbers of natives of both groups being abstracted into atypicality -- or, a worse absurdity, being described as under the influence of the other variety. (5) Finally, to set the trap, we stressed that although many differences do exist, the greatest problem in approaching them was that most people, native and non-native, professional and untrained, were positive as to what the differences were, although they had little intellectual evidence to support their beliefs. Could our students actually believe that even teachers who regularly read American and British newspapers, for example, did not see that each variety continued to espouse differences which did not exist, or which were not true contrasts? No. Of course, this was hard to believe, although one has heard that such individuals do exist!

We purchased three (native) English-language newspapers, two of which could be considered "quality," and one of the more popular type. All were available at a local (i.e. German) newspaper shop (or is it store?). We went through each and cut out headlines and short selections which were most appropriate to our purpose. All of the clippings were then pasted onto sheets and "copied by xeroxing" (AmE?). No indication of their origins was given, and any place names, etc., were crossed out. We allowed one class meeting to pass, and then handed out the sheets. They carried the following instructions:

> All of the following clippings are taken from recent English-language newspapers. Mark each clipping (e.g. an "A" for one from an American newspaper; a "B" for one from a British newspaper) to indicate whether you think it comes from an American or British newspaper.

We then took turns reading out each clipping, allowing a few seconds for our students to mark each one. Table 1 (see Appendix 1) gives a selection of

the clippings (although it should be remembered that they were copied in their original form). TEAM readers are invited to follow the instructions, as well.

Our denouement was now due. We informed our students that all the clippings had been taken from three British newspapers, of the same date: the Sunday Times, the Observer, and the Sunday Mirror. Our students, of course, had not been tipped off that a surprise was in the offing, as have our TEAM readers, and their surprise was apparent. We then went through the sheets, commenting on each item for its AmE or BrE typicality and very directly on the cliché that supported each wrong choice. Wrong choices (i.e., an "A") were in abundance, with an average of about 70% of all clippings being marked as AmE. Although we had not tried to demonstrate it, we are sure that, had we included distractors (e.g. non-marked cliché-based items), almost all of the clippings would have been marked "A" by almost all of our students. Were our students familiar with these newspapers; had they read them? Reluctant "uhuhs". Was this a "fair" exercise? Well, it was most effective.

We followed up this exercise with a second handout. In this one we contrasted what appeared in standard (German) EFL textbooks and references with actual (again, xeroxed) clippings. Selections from this handout are shown in Table 2 (see Appendix 2).

After both exercises, our students, future teachers of English at all levels of German education, were much more willing to accept that the problems of comparison were real and that clichés about AmE/BrE were indeed widespread (even among those who had studied English for a decade or more). And, hardly least, they were also much more critical of the many textbooks and references which kept such clichés alive by offering simplistic comparisons and contrasts. Needless to say, at this point we were not concerned with demonstrating actual differences, but with clearing the air and countering the pervasive effects of clichés. To this end, the exercises were extremely effective. Notably, many of our students who at first were not sure just how fair the exercises had been have since decided that administering them to other students and even self-assured "natives" is good fun, after all. We therefore recommend this technique to others facing similar difficulties, whatever the "other" variety. Furthermore, we would be delighted to correspond with anyone who would like more specific information, or who wishes to relate his or her own experiences with such "pudding on" of students (to demonstrate that the proof is in the pudding!).

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Appendix 1

TABLE 1

Selected "Clippings" from English-language Newspapers

Prep, porn, pills, and Mrs Everywoman
Three literary types: promoting heart, anger, and a blue nose style

House! Bill celebrates jingle bell bonanza

SUPERCOLOR P.O. BOX 44

EVIL DIESEL
- Since we're on the road, let's carry on truckin'!
- The truck driver who claimed that diesels don't cause lead pollution may be right. But...

Begin Music in Your Home
RENTAPIANO

Less Money - More Sunny

With a touch of schmaltz

SPEND XMAS IN THE SUN

I was furious when I read the story about woman speed cop Lesley Kirkup, who says that pounding the beat didn't appeal to her....

The meter man

BE YOUR OWN BOSS!

Ring FREEFONE 2235 or ...

"They've agreed to become honorary untouchables"

ROLL UP!
FOR 72
ACTION-PACKED
PAGES OF
EXCITING
KIDS'
CLOTHES.

FOR ALL XTRA INTEREST...
...have been added together to give you the most addaptable, addvantageous, addmirable, addept, addicted, addvisable industrial location [...] Addtracted?

Portakabin

FOTOPOST EXPRESS

CELLAR BARR

The ladies are getting all excited over a new soft drink on offer.

STOCKING FILLAS

CALLOG Callogging is...

This delicious piece of human machinery comes to the job without any protocol hang-ups...

Dec. 1st.

MARCH 5, 1982

JUNE 26th 1982

Sunday 1 November 1982

at 7.30 pm

Please tick the ...

at 7.30 p.m.

POST BEFORE 16th NOVEMBER 1981 or ask your secretary to mail.

Mr/Mrs/Ms____

Mr/Mrs/Miss ____

Mrs. M. Gillgallon

To place your advert...

Make it a regular read.

Mr Frank Chappie

Swimming Pools

from nought to 60...

I'm an insurance broker

MUM BANNED FROM STORE NEW SUPERSTORE NOW OPEN ...we specialize in personal assurance

...to make your house a home. SHOW FLATS OPEN...

A superb development of 20 apartments A new development of 9 luxury flats

...of a campus network... When we took this picture at Spurley Hey High School

100 IDEAS FOR THE BATHROOM So you'll be able to arrive at the airport...

Although it would be possible to separate the truck and bus company...

Teenage delinquents are people too DP AUTOMOBILES Extensive application program library

Only Mulberry do it all. Brisk New Zealand road-movie ...superb film...

Berry plays it cool...

Littoral thinking... Inscape to the City Getting a Biggar chance

Just stick 'em up the stack Pudding on the style

Appendix 2

TABLE 2

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1. Mencken in The American Language (1936 ed.):
   quoting McAlpine (1929): "When two-thirds of the people who use a language ...decide to call it a freight train instead of a goods train they are 'right'; and the first is correct English and the second a dialect."

2. Fowler in Modern English Usage (1965 ed.):
   commenting on statement above: "We are still far from admitting this claim, but in fact are showing signs of yielding to it in spite of ourselves."

3. HMSO (Her Majesty's Stationery Office) in Britain 1976: An Official Handbook:
   "A computer-based total operations system allowing constant control of all consignments and freight train and wagon movements, introduced in south-west England in 1973 has been extended to the whole of Great Britain."

4. Hornby, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (1974):
   (US) freight train/car, (= GB goods train)
   waggon (US usu wagon)

5. Observer (15 April 1979) advertisement for British Rail entitled BRITAIN'S OVERNIGHT REVOLUTION:
"British Rail's new air-braked wagons are a far cry from the freight trains of old."

6. English G. Grosse Ausgabe [EFL textbook] (1976):
BE theatre AE theater

7. The New Yorker: THE THEATRE - Off Broadway.

8. Advertisement from Phoenix AZ; The Showplace Theatres

9. Learning English Modern Course Gym. 4 [EFL textbook] (1977)
AE - fall; BE - autumn

10. Advertisement in American magazine: BALLOON RANCH autumn adventure

11. Advertisement in McCall's (Fall)
Wrap yourself up in a collection of accessory delights for autumn.

12. Englisch fur Erwachsene 3 [EFL textbook] (1978)
AE - store; BE - shop

13. Advertisements from U.S. magazines:
The Tog Shop [...] free catalog
At fine book and record shops
FREE CATALOGUE [...] Antartrex Sheepskin Shops

14. Advertisements from British magazines:
...it makes a store a safe place for people to shop in.
Callers are welcome at our store.

15. Strevens in British and American English (1972):
BE: lorry; AE: truck

16. Observer (5 August 1979) advertisement:
When you need a Truck - It's only a phone call away!

17. Quirk in "English -- a European Language" (1970):
"So we could go on. The long and imposing lists of so-called distinctive British and American words and usages that are found in handbooks are highly misleading: both the items so neatly separated are either well-known in one or the other country or, as frequently is the case, in both."

A RULE OF THUMB FOR RENDERING ARABIC MEASURE V VERBS IN ENGLISH

Stuart J. Campbell
Sydney Technical College
Sydney, Australia

Sydney Technical College has conducted a course for interpreters and translators since 1976, and migrant students -- usually of Lebanese origin -- take the Arabic strand of the course with the aim of working as interpreters and translators servicing the expatriate Arab community in the areas of health, welfare and the law.

Problems of translation encountered on the course often provide a bonus in that they can be interpreted as problems of interference that clarify difficulties experienced by Arab students in the general ESL courses at the college. One such problem is that of translating Arabic mediopassive verbs into English. These verbs, known to Arabists as Measure V, are augmented forms of Measure II verbs and are formed by prefixing ta-. For example, a Measure II verb kawwana is prefixed with ta- to make the Measure V verb takawwana.

The principal effect of augmenting a Measure II verb to Measure V is to make it intransitive. The problem for Arabic speakers is that while intransitivity is coded in this case by the prefix ta-, its coding in English is effected by a number of different syntactic strategies. The following examples will make this clear:

Measure V Verb	English Glosses in Context
takawwana	deposits formed deposits were formed
tathallaja	the water froze the water became frozen the water iced up
taghayyara	the timetable changed the timetable was changed
tadarraba	he trained in Beirut he was trained in Beirut
tawaddaha	the matter was clarified the matter became clear
tazawwaja	they married in 1961 they got married in 1961

The problem for the teacher is a typical one. Does he gloss over the question of the best choice, relegating the matter to the vagaries of English style? Or does he present a series of complicated rules that will probably throw up a wealth of exceptions? A useful approach has been developed for our interpreters and translators which avoids the two pitfalls of vagueness and over-complexity.

The English glosses given in the above examples do not by any means include all the alternatives. However, it seems that we can isolate five main strategies in English that generally make a successful translation of Measure V verbs:

1. simple intransitive verbs, e.g. to form;
2. phrasal verbs, e.g. to ice up;
3. become + adjective, e.g. to become clear;
4. agentless passives, e.g. to be changed;
5. any other strategy, e.g. to get married (let us call this 'idiom' for convenience).

Now, although all of the above strategies should be familiar to our interpreting and translating students, there still remains the question of the best choice in a particular context. For instance, if the verb 'takawwana' can be translated by a simple intransitive verb or by an agentless passive, how will the students make the better choice between "A layer of bacterial deposits is formed" and "A layer of bacterial deposits forms"?

Experience has shown that a good rule of thumb can be based on two semantic oppositions that arise from the five basic strategies mentioned earlier. The five strategies are specified in the following matrix:

	intrans. verb	phrasal verb	become + adj.	passive	idiom
± formal	0	-	+	0	0
± agent	-	-	-	+	0

The opposition "+ formal" is a rough and ready stylistic device that serves to distinguish the three strategies, intransitive verb, phrasal verb and "become + adjective," all of which are specified by "- agent." Thus, "the water ices up" is less formal than "the water freezes" which is still less formal than "the water becomes frozen."

A useful hint for students is that one should not bother to make a stylistic choice unless it is absolutely necessary. In other words, the intransitive verb should be the first choice among "- agent" alternatives unless (a) it is not available, or (b) it is available but the passage calls for a particularly informal or formal style.

The opposition "± agent" takes into account the fact of an agent being mentioned or implied. For instance, in the sentence "after half an hour, deposits form," no agent is mentioned, and we will assume that none is mentioned in the preceding few sentences. But in "the current is switched on and deposits are formed" where the agent -- the current -- is mentioned in close proximity to its effect, the passive is used. In our matrix the passive strategy is marked zero for "± formal" since it is the only strategy bearing "± agent."

Finally, idioms are specified as neither participating in "± formal" or "± agent." Another hint is useful here: if an idiom is available, it should be used only as a last resort.

The scheme outlined above has three general advantages in addition to helping to solve the problem of translating Measure V verbs. Firstly, it helps reinforce the notion of the importance of context in translating. Secondly, it provides students with the opportunity to observe and practice stylistic variation in English in a fairly foolproof way. And finally, it provides a basis for revision of English structures if necessary; there will often be cases where work on Measure V verbs shows that some extra work needs to be done on passives or phrasal verbs. An effective classroom sequence might be:

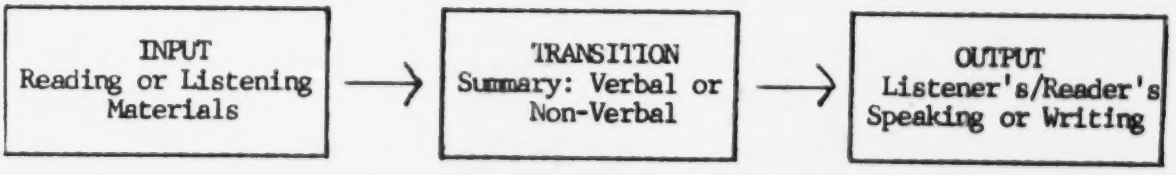
1. presentation of problem of alternative English translations for Measure V verbs;
2. eliciting main English strategies from students;
3. eliciting basis for choice, i.e. oppositions;
4. presentation of rule of thumb;
5. multiple choice exercises -- students choose best English translations;
6. dictionary exercises requiring students to look up English translations and classify by strategy;
7. supply exercises in which students supply English translations of Arabic verbs in context;
8. revision of English structures if necessary.

TASK LISTENING

by Tom Stableford
University of Petroleum & Minerals

Despite the considerable advances made in communicative language teaching since the mid-1970's, the testing of communicative performance is still in its relative infancy, although an important interim contribution has been made in this field by Brendan Carroll (1980). Tests attempting to assess students' communicative competence at tertiary level are now being run by the Joint Matriculation Board of Manchester, England, and several other projects are currently underway elsewhere in the U.K. Readers familiar with the "describe and draw" idea devised by the ELT Institute of the British Council, London, will recognize the following suggestions as a development of that original idea.

Most listening tasks seem to involve a combination of a good memory and guesswork, viz. 'listen to the following and answer the question' (multiple choice or otherwise). If, however, we extend the idea of 'reading for meaning' to listening, we may develop a more satisfactory method of testing comprehension, which is one element of the communicative transaction. Thus, if the student is required to listen for meaning and to transfer his understanding to written and/or oral tasks, we can better assess his comprehension. The chief examiner of the Joint Matriculation Board, Pat McEldowney, has devised a simple model to illustrate this process:



The following exercise is devised for a target group in a specific location. Similar ones could, of course, be derived for any group in any location. Two additional exercises will be presented in the next issue of TEAM.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Testing Communicative Performance, An Interim Study. B.J. Carroll, Oxford, 1980.
2. Practice for the JMB Test in English (Overseas). P.L. McEldowney, Edinburgh, 1982.

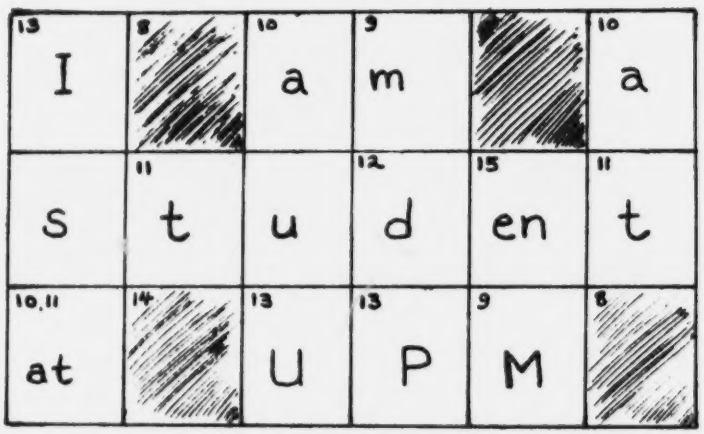
TASK LISTENING: SAMPLE EXERCISE

For this exercise, students will need a metric ruler, pencil, and paper. The instructions will be given on tape.

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. Draw a rectangle 6 cm X 10 cm with the longer edges at the top and bottom.
2. Draw a line parallel with the top line, but 2 cm under it.
3. Draw another line parallel with the bottom line, but 2 cm above it.
4. Mark a point 5 cm along the top line.
5. Mark a point 5 cm along the bottom line and join the two points.
6. Draw lines parallel with the left edge of the rectangle at 17 mm intervals.
7. How many boxes do you have now?
8. Blacken the boxes at the bottom right-hand corner, the second from the left at the top, and the second from the right at the top.
9. Write a capital "M" in the fifth box of the bottom row counting from the left, and a small "m" to the left of the top right-hand corner.
10. Write the letter "a" in the third box from the left in the top row, in the box at the top right-hand corner and the bottom left-hand corner.
11. In the middle row, counting from the left, write "t" in the second and sixth boxes. Do the same to the right of the "a" in the bottom row in the same box.
12. Write "d" in the fourth box from the left of the middle row.
13. Write a capital "P" next to the capital "M" and a capital "I" in the top left-hand corner. Write a capital "U" next to the capital "P".
14. Blacken in the box to the left of the capital "U".
15. In the fifth box from the left of the middle row, write "en".
16. What letters must you write in the remaining boxes?
17. Now tell me WHO AM I?

If the student has followed the directions, he should end up with:



THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE: A PRACTICAL GUIDE

Edited by Gerry Abbott and Peter Wingard
Collins, 1981

(Reviewed by N. McBeath, F/Lt., ELS, Sultan of Oman's Air Force)

This book is the result of work undertaken by the editors both in their capacities as tutors on the Manchester University M. Ed. and Dip. T.E.O. courses, and as visiting experts for, among other bodies, The British Council. The suggestion that English is now an "international" rather than a foreign or second language is, therefore, one which they intend to be taken seriously; and if it is objected that their overview leaves little room for insights into specific learner difficulties, it is because the scope of this book is so broad.

To begin with, the book is intended to be useful to both the new and the experienced teacher, and to this end each chapter has been given its own bibliography. Secondly, the editors face the problems of EFL/ESL/ESP and what Abbott has termed TENOR -- Teaching English for No Obvious Reason -- in the sections "Approaches to English Teaching" (pp. 11-36) and "Putting Things in Perspective" (pp. 276-286). Between these sections, however, are chapters on Pronunciation, Aural Comprehension, Reading Comprehension, Oracy, Writing, Assessment, Error Analysis, Remedial Work, Planning Lessons, and The Teacher and the Class. All the chapters contain stimulating ideas which present very clearly the functional approach to English, which has been one of the most noticeable features of Manchester University and the Northern Universities Joint Matriculation Board. All the chapters, moreover, are prefaced with examples of situations encountered in teaching, and these serve to place the topic in perspective.

In the opening section, "Who Knows Best," the editors make the point that "this is a book to have at hand rather than just a book to read and put away" (p. 9). They also invite comments and criticism from their readers. I regard this as a most worthwhile text, but if you disagree, Messrs. Abbott and Wingard would like to hear from you.

FUNCTIONS OF AMERICAN ENGLISH: COMMUNICATION ACTIVITIES FOR THE CLASSROOM

by Leo Jones, and C. von Baeyer
Cambridge University Press, 1983

(Reviewed by Lee S. Tesdell, University of Petroleum & Minerals)

This text is based on an earlier one published in 1977 for learners of British English. It is intended for high intermediate and advanced students. It is primarily a conversation/listening text though there are some written exercises included in each of the fifteen chapters. It is composed of two parts: first, fifteen chapters of conversation exercises organized around real-life topics, then fifty-nine pages of supplementary "discussion situations."

For the ESL teacher who prefers to pick and choose materials in order to design a course, the second section (Communication Activities) may have more appeal than the text itself. Subjects as diverse as 'The Wright Brothers,' 'Holidays in Acapulco' and 'How to Make Your Own Yogurt' offer substantial conversation topics for that twenty-minute conversation component you need to write into your lesson plan.

The reviewer's own opinion of the text is somewhat positive. I used the first five chapters while tutoring three Korean graduate students preparing to become teaching assistants in an American university. Their comprehension and writing skills were good, but their spoken English could hardly be understood at times. Functions of American English provided the needed conversation practice and helped to overcome certain culturally based problems such as the students' reluctance to ask the teacher for explanations of subject matter. The students learned to introduce themselves, interrupt a conversation politely, answer questions and make appointments.

The authors evidently feel that our students learn best in authentic conversation situations. This is why you find an exercise on page 19 where they learn to 'agree and refuse' or on page 32 where they learn to 'state intentions.' This is all fine and dandy, but unfortunately one classroom's 'authenticity' is another's 'artificiality.' As I have found through experience, 'real language situations' cannot often be recaptured on paper. What seemed an excellent piece of conversation for teaching while the author taught 17-year-olds in a summer course in Bournemouth may not come alive for students elsewhere. The teacher then must find a new way to make the subject appropriate.

The text may not be appropriate as a core listening/conversation book, but certainly is a good place to start, and is valuable for the teacher who must pick and choose materials in order to construct the best course for his situation.

Functions of American English is available with tapes and a teacher's manual.

MEANING INTO WORDS, INTERMEDIATE:

AN INTEGRATED COURSE FOR STUDENTS OF ENGLISH

by Adrain Doff, Christopher Jones, and Keith Mitchell
Cambridge University Press, 1983

(Reviewed by Robert Hilden, University of Petroleum & Minerals)

Since the emergence of the concepts of communicative competence and notional-functionalism in the past decade, syllabus and textbook writers have struggled to find a viable way of balancing traditional aspects of structure with equally important ideas and concerns of use. The authors of MEANING INTO WORDS claim to have developed a text that indeed does integrate structural and functional approaches to language teaching.

In a critique of previous attempts to reconcile what may appear to be conflicting theories, the authors state that structural courses tend to teach form and meaning but not use; functional courses, on the other hand, erred in the opposite direction by teaching form and use and without regard for meaning.

The authors have done an admirable job. The writing of a structurally-oriented text presents a writer with a formidable task, and the inclusion of communicative concerns complicates not only theoretical considerations but also practical ones such as sequence and emphasis. Any text is a compromise. As Douglas Brown points out, "Communication is qualitative and infinite; a syllabus is quantitative and finite."

Specifically, the authors state that their text is "a course in grammar and its use in communication [which] sets out to teach the grammatical system of English in relation to the uses to which the learner will predictably want to put it." Grammar, meaning, use and communication are emphasized in turn.

The authors purposefully introduce contexts of use in order to ensure that the relations between form, meaning and use are perceptible to the student as he proceeds. Supposedly when the student sees the present perfect tense presented and practiced for such purposes as stating one's previous experience, announcing news, describing changes and the like, he will more readily grasp its function as a verb form referring to "past events of current relevance." Additionally, the group functions and their exponents are presented in conceptually related sets. For example, obligation, permission, exemption and prohibition are related to each other through the concepts of necessity and possibility, which are in turn usually expressed by certain modal auxiliaries.

The broad functional areas the authors develop are seven: action, description, personal information, narration, past and present, comparison and explanation. Each of these seven is divided into a number of sub-units arranged in logical progression and in levels of increasing difficulty. Under the functional area of past and present, for example, we find four units: 'Talking about Now,' 'Recent Actions and Activities', 'The Past and the Present,' and 'Origin and Duration.' As an example of content, 'The Past and Present' unit deals with the structures used to, remember, would, present perfect, not...any more/longer and present perfect passive. The seven functional areas include sub-units dealing with 'Places,' 'Directions,' 'Location' and 'Objects.' The language points dealt with in the sub-unit 'Places' are the uses of in, on, and at and their phrasal counter-parts.

A lot of language is covered in this series, although one might wish for more examples and exercises. What the authors have given us, however, is generally excellent. The exercises and activities require production, e.g.:

> "Respond to the following remarks in two different ways.
> Use these words: so nor/neither too either."
>
> "Here are some things that Rick remembers about his childhood. Rewrite each sentence with I remember + -ing:
> 'I used to eat meat once a week.'
> 'I had my hair cut once a fortnight.'"

Experience suggests that composition ("writing") in most general texts is given short shrift, and such is the case here. Some good subjects for paragraphs are given, but direct instruction in the writing process is apparently left up to the teacher.

The series is designed for use in a general course which takes students from intermediate level to the level of the Cambridge Certificate examination. In addition to the basic book, there is a workbook and a test booklet. Two cassettes are also a part of the package: a "book" cassette contains listening presentations, short listening models, comprehension passages and recorded examples of practice exercises. The "drill" cassette contains 38 drills. Their transcripts suggest that they are exceptionally well-done.

. . . ELC NEWS ITEMS

CONGRATULATIONS TO....

....RICHARD MARTIN WATSON and MICHAEL FREDERICK HOHL who have recently been appointed, respectively, General Coordinator of the Orientation English Program, and Coordinator of the University English Program.

WELCOME TO....

....new faculty members of UPM's English language program: JOHN AVERY, previously affiliated with Portland State University (USA); WILLIAM BOYCE, Honolulu Community College (USA); DAVID COX, Southampton University (UK); GRAHAM ELLIOTT, University of Hawaii (N. Zealand); JEFF GUNZLEMAN, University of Arizona (USA); PHILLIP HARRIS, King Faisal University, Saudi Arabia (USA); DARION HUTCHINSON, who has returned to UPM after a year of independent study at the University of Arizona (USA); LARRY MEASE, Instituto Mexicano Norteamericano, Mexico (USA); GEORGE (LEE) RACHAR, Abbotsford ESL Program (Can); PETER SEXTON, Essex University (UK); LEE TESDELL, Iowa State University (USA); ROBERT VINCENT, ESL, Oman Institute of Health Sciences (UK); RODERICK WALTHEN, Administrative College of Papua, New Guinea (UK).

KUDOS TO....

....those among our ranks who are published authors: DR. ROBERT BANDER, well-known for his Holt, Rinehart and Winston publications on writing and composition, American English Rhetoric (Third Ed., 1983), Sentence Making (1982), and From Sentence to Paragraph (1980), which is presently being prepared for its second edition. Dr. Bander's latest book, Stepping Stones (to Stronger Sentences and Paragraphs), will be released by Scott, Foresman in 1985....THOMAS W. ADAMS, whose new book, Attitudes Through Idioms, co-authored with Susan Kuder, will be released by Newbury House March, 1984. Mr. Adams is the Editor of TEAM, and has contributed articles to the various ESL journals....JOHN PINT, who has distinguished himself with his ingenious translations, from French to English, of the popular Lucky Luke series, Dargaud Internat'l. Pub. Co., his ESL series, Pint's Passages for Aural Comprehension ('Telephone Talk' - 1983; 'Twentieth Century News' - 1983), Pergamon Press, and the Encounter English series, co-authored by Dale Enger and published by Encyclopedia Britannica (1979)....THOMAS STABLEFORD, who has written the ambitious and successful The Appreciation of Russian Literature, a university text published by Cambridge University Press (1981).

GENERAL INFORMATION, UPM ENGLISH PROGRAMS, FALL '83....

Director: Mohammed M. Mulla; General Coordinator, Orientation: Martin Watson; Coordinator, University Program: Michael Hohl; Skills Coordinators: Terry Dale, Kevin Dunseath, Denis Egan, Douglas Hickman, Louis Maze, Barry Natusch.

Statistics: Faculty -- 74; Student enrollment, Orientation -- 1281 (63 sections); Student enrollment, University English -- 636 (Eng. 101), 130 (Eng. 102), 205 (Eng. 214).

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SEAMEO Regional Language Centre
30 Orange Grove Road
Singapore 1025
Republic of Singapore

NO.45 WINTER 1983

TEAM

ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTER

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FROM THE EDITOR . . .

We are pleased to share with our readers the first two articles of a new TEAM series which will examine the state of the art of English language instruction in Saudi Arabia. Two university-level programs are featured in this issue; the various programs in operation throughout the Kingdom will be introduced in forthcoming issues.

Philip Gould, a New Zealander who has worked in ELT programs around the world, wrote the article describing the program at King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah; David Harper and P.G. Horey, Director and Deputy Director respectively of the English Language Centre there, assisted and encouraged him. The second article was written by Steven Granger, Coordinator of the Intensive English Program of King Saud University in Riyadh. Ali Al-Hejazi and Peter Verdurmen, also of KSU, gave him invaluable support.

From Turkey comes an article delivered at last year's TESOL Convention in Toronto. The author, Dr. Yener Gulmez, serves as Director of the School of Languages at the Gaziantep Campus of the Middle East Technical University.

Our readers may recall the name of N. McBeath who reviewed a textbook in our last issue and whose works have been widely published elsewhere. Flt. Lt. McBeath argues here against the view that Arabic is, phonologically, a monolith.

After reading Part I of the Thomas article in our last issue, one of our faculty raced to us saying he couldn't wait to get his hands on the bibliography. Others of you have also anxiously awaited the conclusion of the Thomas article, and we are happy to include it here.

In the Techniques Department we have activities for both grammar and reading. The first was devised by Tom Stableford, who needs no introduction to TEAM readers. The second comes from Doug Hickman, who coordinates the reading program at our ELC.

We have published two reviews in this issue -- one by Bob Ellison, Features Editor, and one by Thomas Ferrucci, whose interest in notional-functionalism led him to critique a text on the same subject.

A warm welcome goes to Lee Tesdell, who has recently joined our staff to write the ELC News column.

Stan Gentry, our Reviews Editor, sends word that while reviews of reference and textbooks pertaining to all aspects of second language acquisition will be considered for publication, he is particularly interested in those books appropriate for use in the Middle East. Reviews should not exceed two pages (approximately 600 words). Typewritten articles will be received with a smile.

ESP IN KING ABDULAZIZ UNIVERSITY: THE STATE OF THE ART IN 1983

Philip Gould
English Language Centre
King Abdulaziz University
Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

INTRODUCTION

It is 10:30 on a cloudless Jeddah morning. In Room 203 of the College of Medicine, King Abdulaziz University, Dr. Ken Feltham, physicist, is explaining a point to his 85 first-year students:

> The force exerted by the back muscles in picking up a weight can be ten times the magnitude of the weight.

These words are accompanied by gestures towards a large chart showing backbone, muscles and limbs as abstract levers and forces. Although the whole atmosphere in the room is still slightly foreign to the students, they are confident that they are taking in most of what this 'khawaja' is telling them.

One of the 85 students listening intently to the lecture is Ali Ahmed. Just six months ago, Ali was in his final year of high school, sitting in a smaller room with a smaller number of students listening to his teacher explaining a difficult point of English grammar:

> أن كلمة "can" مستعملة دوما مع الفعل الرئيسي .
> وقد يكون هذا الفعل في بعض الاحيان فعل "to be".
>
> [The word "can" is always used with a main verb.
> Sometimes this is the verb "to be".]

Ali was paying some attention to his teacher, but basically he couldn't see the point. English was not his favourite subject.

What happened during Ali's first two months at University to make this transition possible? What, in fact, is the nature of the transition he has made? What is the most economical way students can be helped to make it across the gulf between two widely differing languages? The English Language Centre in King Abdulaziz University has nine years of experience in dealing with students like Ali, and, as a result, believes it has some of the answers to these questions, not all of them necessarily complete.

First: the nature of the transition. The profound nature of the changes necessary in re-orienting oneself to using a totally different communication code should not be underestimated. For people like Ali it means taking in information, processing it, re-expressing and manipulating it, using a code quite different from the one he has used for these purposes since he was a year old. We cannot, of course, simply dismiss six years of school English, but essentially this was studied as a subject, something to be learned for itself, rather than as a tool for learning other things.

Second: the question of economy. Ali comes to University with a reasonable stock of English sentence patterns, a reasonable vocabulary including quite a few scientific terms learnt in science classes, and (probably) a frustrating sense of never having quite mastered the rules of English grammar. Giving him large doses of remedial grammar, and trying to expand his vocabulary and knowledge of patterns with general English would possibly be like presenting him with an invitation to failure. This is because he has 'done it all before,' and his motivation is consequently low. How much more economical to invite Ali to succeed in a new enterprise based on the notion that he can already do a lot of things in English but just doesn't know it, because he has never been asked to try.

So, at the ELC, students who can write simple descriptions of (say) the layout of their house, are set the task of describing the structure of an animal cell, after judicious input of the necessary vocabulary and repetitious use of language models. In this way, on his first day at the ELC, Ali began the transition from student of English to user of English.

Our third question was: what makes a transition of this type possible? The ELC answer is to analyse carefully the actual study skill needs that students will be faced with when they leave the Centre. This is followed by course design that groups these skills into components and brings them to realization in tasks involving the specialized language of key scientific areas. Teaching this type of course requires language teachers who have scientific training or at least a high degree of sensitivity to the authentic language of the discipline that their students are following.

Similarly, the attempt to replicate in the language classroom at least some of the features of a laboratory or college lecture hall involves imaginative use of audio-visual aids and realia. Given the right degree of course intensity, strict relevance of language, richness of resources, and well-trained instructors, Ali and people like him can make the transition in a remarkably short time. Naturally, they will go on learning English after finishing their course, but this learning will be informal and incidental to their other pursuits.

It needs to be stressed, however, that not all students are like Ali. Some come to the ELC with such a limited grasp of grammar and vocabulary that the task-based approach cannot be expected to work. Such students are given a 'foundation' course which is basically remedial in approach but at the same time anticipates the content areas they are going to meet later in a more demanding form.

Similarly, at the 'top end' of the scale, there are some students who have studied abroad, or have enjoyed special tuition, etc., who on entry to the ELC already have the required study skills in English. In some cases, these students are totally exempted from ELC courses; in other cases, they follow the same programme as their fellow students, but at a greatly accelerated rate.

BACKGROUND AND STRUCTURE

The English Language Centre at King Abdulaziz University began nine years ago. The initial planning document set out to provide for the Engineering and Medical Colleges "... a self-correcting programme of English medium study skills that integrates and develops knowledge, reasoning and communication, and is run on a tutorial basis."

Although initially there was a common programme for the two colleges, this quickly led to divergence as a result of the unenthusiastic response of medical students to lessons on the internal combustion engine. The materials writers had assumed that such a topic, being of general interest as well as a good model for illustrating the language of process and thus having a high degree of generalisability, would be ideal for all students. It was experiences such as this that led ultimately to the task-based philosophy which forms so much of what goes on at the ELC today. In essence, this is an approach for which the starting point is not language, but 'task' -- meaning an authentic activity arising out of a discipline, and encapsulating conceptual, physical, and linguistic dimensions.

After an initial two years of tentative development, the ELC formulated the approach which underlies the materials and methods used today. The last three or four years have been characterised by greater integration and rationalisation, 'fine-tuning' of courses and materials, and much greater emphasis on classroom methodology. At one point the ELC had as many as 13 courses operating independently with students ranging from first year engineers to graduate teaching assistants. Nowadays, the multiplicity of courses remains, but within a management structure that discourages duplication of resources and effort (see Appendix, Fig. 1).

PURPOSE: TASK-BASED LEARNING

It should be clear from the foregoing discussion that the ELC sets out to train students in the communication skills demanded of them by their subject studies. Thus, the Centre sets behavioural objectives for its students to reach and judges their progress on the basis of these objectives rather than on overall 'proficiency in English.'

Some examples of behavioural objectives are:

> ... able to follow a 45-minute lecture in the field of study and make notes on the main points.
>
> ... able to participate in a laboratory investigation and to write up the procedure and findings in a report.

It should not need stressing that the motivation value of setting such clear and specific objectives is high: students and English instructors alike have clearly visible goals that are worked towards through attainable steps.

The objectives quoted above are examples of terminal tasks: once a student has demonstrated his ability to carry out such tasks, he is considered to have reached 'take-off' point, meaning that further learning in the use of English will take place more economically within the framework of his parent college studies. The 'small attainable steps' are called enabling tasks: these are the building blocks of all ELC courses, since it is a requirement of the ELC approach that all classroom activity be ultimately relatable to terminal tasks. Hence, ELC syllabuses are expressed not in terms of grammatical structures to be acquired, nor of linguistic functions to be realised in language forms, but in terms of tasks (which are of course the intersections of language, content and behavioural aspects).

COURSE DESIGN

For a particular group of students we need to select suitable tasks according to the authenticity of language and content and according to their coverage of systemic language (meaning the unique language forms of that content area). The ELC programme for this group can be designed by putting together tasks on the basis usually of the settings in which they take place, grading these tasks according to their level of difficulty, then distributing them over the time available.

Typical components (i.e. groupings of tasks) which form part of many ELC programmes are SCIENCE ACTIVITIES, TEXTBOOK REFERENCE, and LECTURE NOTE-TAKING. In the ELC these components are taught in different rooms with very different methodologies. SCIENCE ACTIVITIES is taught in a classroom where an attempt is made to simulate laboratory conditions. The teacher may pre-teach some essential vocabulary and perhaps demonstrate an activity; then the students will engage in a properly open-minded scientific activity which generates real data and elicits real communicative use of English in talking and writing about it.

TEXTBOOK REFERENCE is carried out in a well-equipped library area with students working silently and independently, and the teacher circulating to assist, challenge and inspire students in extracting the required information from authentic texts.

LECTURE NOTE-TAKING is taught using simplied versions of lectures students will one day have to attend in earnest, as it were. The instructor role-plays a subject lecturer in presenting something, then switches back to his language-teacher role to check on the recoverability of students' notes, answer questions on language points, and get students to practice manipulating the language they are acquiring.

Other components reflect more the traditional language teaching approaches, although the materials covered in them are also task-based. Examples are: INTENSIVE READING, LANGUAGE LABORATORY, SELF-ACCESS, and CORE

STUDIES, the latter being general classroom exploration of a key subject area from the science being studied (e.g. 'The Animal Cell' in the first-year medical programme).

METHODOLOGY

Although quite a lot has already been said about the role of the teacher, it would be useful here to describe methodology from first principles.

A course contains a graded series of tasks leading to terminal objectives. The tasks are graded on conceptual as well as linguistic grounds and can be described on a scale of nine levels, or bands. (Bands will be discussed in greater detail below, under 'Assessment.')

In the classroom, the teacher works through a progression of materials with his students; in theory presenting them with a task to complete which is just beyond their present level of competence. (In practice, it is not possible to 'stream' students finely enough to obtain a homogeneous grouping, nor has it proved practicable to date to delineate tasks with such precision over all our courses.) To the ordinary EFL teacher, the materials, whether in print, on video tape, or on overhead transparency, etc., may appear indistinguishable from purely scientific materials. The trained language teacher, however, generally has no difficulties in seeing the possiblilities for linguistic exploitation that are inherent in the materials. What may present him with a problem is mastery of the science content at least to a level where he is confident in teaching these materials. ELC staff with scientific training, on the other hand, have complementary problems of adjustment. Frequent contact between the two types of staff, informally in staffrooms and more formally in training seminars, is the answer to these problems.

It might help to return to our medical student Ali Ahmed at this point, and catch a glimpse of how the ELC helped prepare him for the physics lecture mentioned in the introduction.

Core Studies Unit 16 of ELC Medics' first-year programme deals with levers. The content here is already known by the students from high school. The instructor's task, therefore, is to reactivate this knowledge, to teach the relevant English vocabulary items, and to stimulate the students to use these items in receptive and productive modes for real communication. Obviously, this task can only be carried out if there is a teacher-student ratio which allows students to be involved in real communication and for the teacher to monitor the quality of that communication. The 'tutorial approach' of the ELC is premised upon a maximum class size of 16 students.

With this unit, the instructor pre-teaches some of the key lexis, probably using a spring balance, a set of weights, and a lever and pivoting point. Then he hands out a worksheet to be used in conjunction with a video film. The worksheet contains questions which the student should be able to answer after viewing the video; these are used as priming questions to focus the student's attention during viewing. After viewing the film, students write answers to these questions, perhaps in pairs or small groups. Then the teacher goes over the questions in a 'plenary' session, carefully monitoring the accuracy of the

answers in order to spot students with problems. The truth value (rather than the grammaticality) of a student utterance is of greater importance at this stage, although the teacher continues to present a clear, correct model for students to imitate.

The next stage is exploitation of this new knowledge. The students are given visual materials to use in talking about types of levers (see Appendix, Fig. 2 for an example of this unit). Let's say that the teacher calls on Ali to talk about the diagrams in Figure 2. He says:

> Ali, please explain how a second order lever works, and give an example from the human body.

Ali's response would perhaps go like this:

> A second order lever has load between fulcrum and effort. In the body when lift up on toes, effort is back of leg and load is weight of whole body.

Although the truth value of this utterance is acceptable, the grammar leaves something to be desired. The teacher says:

> Yes, when we stand up on our toes, the effort is exerted (or the work is done) by the muscles of the back of the leg, and the load acts through the centre of the leg.

This oral exploitation of the material carries on for some time, then is followed by writing exercises in which closer attention can be paid to formal accuracy.

In a paper of this length, it is not possible to do more than suggest with the above example the kind of activity that goes on in more than 900 highly varied classes per week.

ASSESSMENT

In the colleges of a university, things change. Syllabuses are revised, new courses are started, and student intakes differ in quality from year to year. A service centre like the ELC has to reflect these changes, and for this reason it is difficult to generalise about many of the courses offered.

ELC departments keep fairly close liaison with parent colleges, and there is a constant flow of information about the content and effectiveness of courses. This is one aspect of ongoing assessment. The other aspect, of perhaps more interest here, is measuring the progress of students through the system. There is a standard ELC method for measuring student proficiency which is contained within a 'band sheet' (see Appendix, Fig. 3). In addition to this, each department has band sheets specifying the grading of tasks in pursuit of the terminal objectives of their programme.

It is axiomatic in the work of the ELC that students at Bands 1 and 2 are

not ready for entry to full ESP courses. These are the students who are given 'foundation' courses in the ELC for at least a semester before following the one or two semesters of a 'normal' course. The target for most ELC courses is the achieving of Band 6, although students who have achieved Band 5 are passed on to their college with the understanding that language problems are likely to occur.

Students are not just banded at entry to the ELC and at the end of the semester. There is a policy of continuous assessment involving tests and teacher judgements, so that a student's progress (or lack of it) is monitored, and necessary adjustments can be made.

POSTSCRIPT

To round off this description, let us return to Ali Ahmed at the end of two semesters at the ELC. He has now successfully completed his first year in the Medical College, involving 200 hours each of Physics, Chemistry and Biology, plus shorter courses in Public Health and Biostatistics. All of this was studied in English.

The ELC input that Ali experienced over the year amounted to 400 hours divided into two periods: an intensive phase (20 hours per week for 15 weeks), and a servicing phase (10 hours a week for 10 weeks). These English studies took place simultaneously with parent college studies, albeit with changing proportions over the year. Other ELC departments have students more or less full-time before they pass on to college studies, but none of them have programmes which exceed 500 contact hours in assisting students to make the transition to become English users.

Ali Ahmed is not a polished speaker/writer of English. He continues to make some fairly basic errors in grammar, he often struggles to find the right word for something, and he can become rapidly lost if his interlocutor switches to talking about current affairs or literature. He is, however, a genuine user of English, competent to the required level in the required field of study, and well equipped to go on learning independently. He has crossed the gulf.

APPENDIX

Figure 1: ELC Organizational Structure.

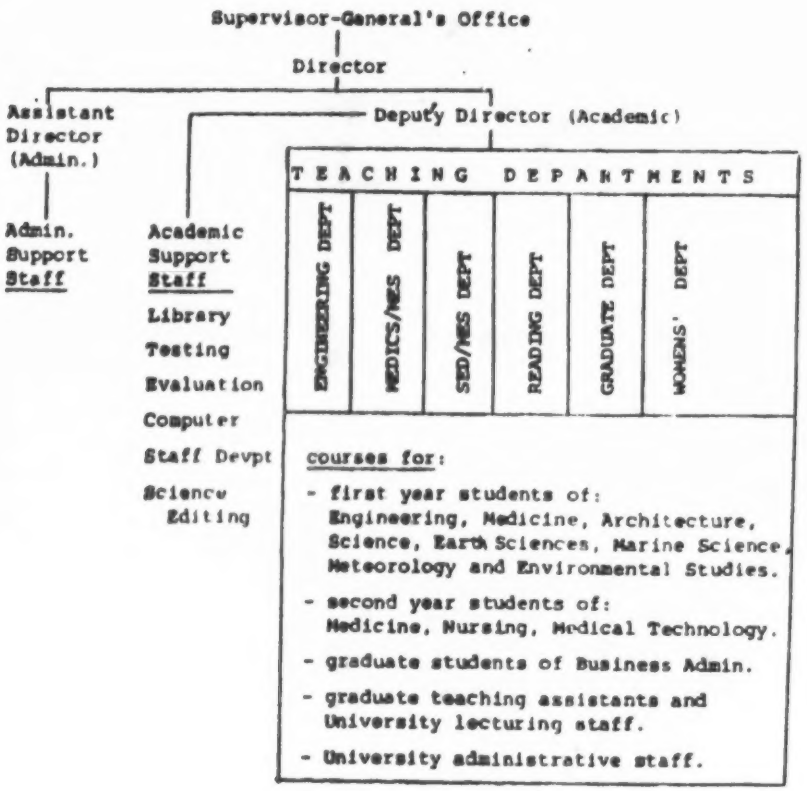

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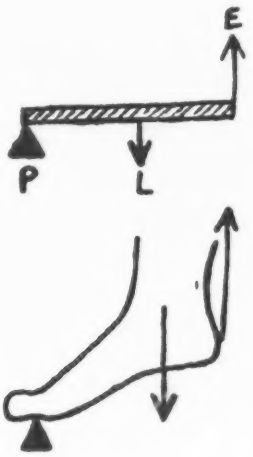
Figure 2: Part of Core Studies, Unit 16 (Medics, First Year).

A 2nd order lever:



Example:

Figure 3: Student Proficiency Band Sheet.

BAND	PERFORMANCE		
9	Expert educated native English speaker's performance		
8	Average educated native English speaker's performance		
7	Good non-native performance		
6	Competent non-native performance. Will have few or no problems in coping with English-medium studies.		TARGET
5	Modestly competent non-native performance. Will just be able to cope with English-medium studies, but will have problems.		LOWEST PASS
4	Marginal non-native performance	not able to	
3	Poor non-native performance	cope with	
2	Very poor non-native performance	English-medium	
1	Almost no English.	studies	

THE INTENSIVE LANGUAGE PROGRAM AT KING SAUD UNIVERSITY

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King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, has various programs in teaching English as a second language. The Intensive Language Program is part of the English Department, and is specifically designed to refine already existing English language skills of students going into the English Department or the Education Department (the latter for purposes of teaching English in schools throughout the country). As such, the Intensive Language Program is not an English-for-special-purposes program structured for a scientific or technical field of study. The objective of the Intensive Language Program is to teach the English language in all of its forms; it is a program requiring that students demonstrate a near-native competency before being permitted to advance.

The Intensive Language Program (hereafter referred to as the ILP) has a basic but encompassing pattern. Students are given five to five-and-a-half hours of instruction, five days a week, in the use of the language. An average day consists of two hours of grammar, one hour of writing, one hour of reading, and one hour of vocabulary or listening/speaking. Included once a week is a translation class. There are three levels in the ILP, and a student is assigned to one of these from test results of a placement examination which is newly designed each session and given before the start of every session.

This placement examination is fairly vigorous. At the beginning of this session 90 students took the exam, with 12 passing directly into more advanced study. Group I (the highest group in the ILP) received 15 students, Group II 20, and Group III 35. The rest of the students that attempted the placement exams became no-shows. Of the students placed in ILP, usually 35 to 50 % will pass on into the English and/or Education Departments. Those who do not pass can take one more session, and many elect to do so.

The three groups in the ILP function at different levels of learning. This creates some problems when the top group is doing direct and indirect sentence manipulations, while the lowest group sometimes is struggling with the verb 'to be.' However, the staff of the ILP is responsible for teaching all facets of the language, eventually covering most necessary areas to a greater or lesser degree of completeness in our 14-week session. The least capable students must take the same examinations as the best to progress to levels where even more is required of them. The standard is excellence; the formula of success is hard work from all concerned.

The content of the courses in the ILP can be reflected in the examinations administered for advancement. For the sake of brevity, the final exam will be used as an index of what is taught. The grammar final (25% of the total final mark) contains at least six major grammatical areas: verbs, pronouns, articles,

prepositions, negatives and questions, and punctuation. It also contains other grammatical points: coordination/subordination, direct/indirect speech, easily confused words, verbals, modals, conditionals, passive/active voice, etc. This part of the final is two hours in length. The textbook for this material is English for Today in six books (The National Council of Teachers of English). The text permits a multi-level approach to grammar with groups of varying skills progressing in relation to their needs. In addition, there are supplementary tools: Living English Structure by Allen, Graded Exercises in English by Dixon, and Regents English Workbook, in three books, by Dixon.

The writing final (30% of the total final mark) usually allows students to choose a subject from among five to write a well-thought out composition. The grade is based upon organization, content, and grammar including spelling. The student is expected to know how to use an introductory paragraph, how to develop his ideas in the body of the composition using topic sentences and supporting sentences, and how to write a concluding paragraph. The final is one hour long. Textbooks for this material vary according to the level of the class. Groups II and III are usually more involved with sentence combining and grammar, as well as with simple organizational principles. The grammar material is taken from the same sources indicated above; the writing texts may be Guided Paragraph Writing by Jupp and Milne, and/or Reading, Thinking, Writing by Lawrence.

The reading final (25% of the total final mark) consists of two reading passages, moderate to difficult . These passages include new vocabulary in context and new information about which questions are asked, including some inferential ones. The reading test is both vocabulary and comprehension, and is two hours long. Material for this class (actually it is two classes combined) includes Multi-Read 2, and SRA 2C, 3A, and 3B. These tools have been helpful in teaching reading comprehension and in generating interest in vocabulary building. The Longman Structural Readers series is also used, each level in the ILP having a new and appropriate reader every session. Stages three through six are generally used. Some recent titles have included For Your Eyes Only, The Adventures of Tom Sawyer, and Mark and Jennifer. These selections are popular with students. Some additional books are Use Your Dictionary by Underhill, and The Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English.

The listening final (20% of the total mark) consists of two listening passages, again moderate and difficult. Each passage is presented twice, during which students take notes and then answer questions. Inferential questions represent the most difficult kind of material. The examination generally takes 45 minutes to an hour. The textbook is Developing Skills by Alexander.

An extension of the ILP is found in the 'Bridging Courses' in the English and Education Departments. To provide a transition for students, two courses have been designed -- English 116 and 117. English 116 focuses on a review of common grammatical mistakes associated with writing. Students who are able to master normal grammar classes still find they need further work with the use of English in writing. They are required to review components of sentences, sentence variety, subject and verb agreement problems, verb tenses and sequences, punctuation, articles and prepositions -- all within the context of

writing. The main textbook is Master American English by Hayden, Pilgrim, and Haggard. Both writing and editing by students are emphasized.

English 117 is another 'Bridging Course' that focuses on vocabulary building within the context of reading and writing. A common problem that many TESL programs face is ensuring the absorption of vocabulary by the student to a level sufficient for handling advanced assignments. It is a relatively easy process to teach form -- grammar structure, writing organization, and rhetoric in reading as well as in oral presentations. It is another thing to have students quickly build up their vocabulary levels, which normally takes longer than most programs last. English 117 requires the mastery of 1,000 new words and the ability to spell and use these words in sequence form, which also implies understanding their grammatical functions. Word studies (prefixes, suffixes and word stems) are emphasized, along with reading exercises for words in context and some writing. Several textbooks are used: Connections & Contexts by Gilbert; Learn to Spell, by Wright; Reading Improvement Exercises for Students of English as a Second Language, by Harris; and Advanced Reading and Writing: Exercises in English as a Second Language, by Baumwoll and Saltz.

These are the basic components of the ILP and the 'Bridging Courses.' However, a discussion of the program and its parts would be incomplete without some commentary on the people who make this program work. Any program can only be a reflection of the personnel teaching in the program, and it seems to this writer that the TESL experience is especially a 'people experience.' The ILP staff has an average of seven years teaching experience in TESL but have advanced degrees in widely divergent fields -- foreign languages, linguistics, creative writing, reading, and literature. Several members are fluent in two or more languages. One could make his living as a car mechanic or as an electrician. One has two books to his credit as a literary critic. Another is a published poet and also has had numerous art exhibitions of his pen and ink drawings. One member of the staff was the headmaster of a school in Rhodesia for 20 years. All are proficient in teaching English as a second language, and all have the intangible ability to impart learning to their students. The skills and various experiences of the ILC staff help the program to function smoothly and effectively. Here then is the Intensive Language Progam 1983-1984 at King Saud University.

FACTORS AFFECTING STUDENTS' SUCCESS IN FL LEARNING

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The purpose of this study is to assess the degree of relationship between student success in formal second language learning and some of the factors that are known to affect success in second language acquistion. The following areas are investigated in relation to student success in FL learning:

A. general aptitude scores obtained in the Turkish University Entrance Examination;

B. attitude toward the target language group;

C. orientation index;

D. study habits;

E. attitude towards teacher;

F. subjects in-class behaviour;

G. levels of anomie and ethnocentrism;

H. duration of previous formal foreign language learning.

METHOD

Tools were devised to gather information about the subjects and to measure their success in foreign language learning for the following specific purposes:

a. to measure student success;
b. to measure student attitudes toward the target language groups;
c. to establish the students' purpose in learning the target language, and to determine their study habits;
d. to establish students' attitudes toward the teacher and their attitude toward the class;
e. to evaluate teachers' in-class observations made about the project.

Basic instructional sources made use of in the study are:

1. the students' textbooks,
2. the foreign language laboratory, and
3. the teachers.

The textbook component comprises eleven texts, six of which are from the Let's Learn English series, which makes provisions for activities related to a foundation in the foreign language. The language laboratory used in the study was a Tandberg 156 audio-active compare type, with 66 booths and two master consoles. Students used the laboratory under teacher supervision for five hours per week. In the laboratories, students were given opportunities to observe their errors through recordings of their voices, alternating with participation in the package programs and repetition drills.

The sample is composed of 126 students who studied English in the preparatory section of the Middle East Technical University during the academic year 1980-81 and the teachers who were responsible for the education of these students. Teachers who participated in the study were between the ages of twenty-seven and forty, and all had at least four years of teaching experience.

In order to find answers to the questions posed in relation to the purpose of the study, a students' in-class evaluation form for teachers, two separate questionnaires, and achievement tests were prepared. Moreover, in order to obtain further information about students, student files in the registrar's office were consulted. The study started in the first semester of the 1980-81 academic year, and 142 subjects were placed into six different groups using random sampling procedures. Later, sixteen subjects were dropped from the study for various reasons.

The teachers mentioned above taught according to a pre-arranged timetable. Questionnaire One was given to students at the beginning of the academic year to establish their attitudes toward the target language group. The subjects were asked not to write their names on the questionnaires in order that they could give open answers to the questions.

Teachers observed the subjects during the study, scored their in-class behaviour on a scale of ten, and submitted their evaluations of the subjects.

Questionnaire One was given to the subjects for a second time in order to establish whether there had been any change in their attitudes toward the language group after a year spent in foreign language study.

Four achievement tests and one final examination were administered to the subjects during the academic year in order to measure their success in learning the target language.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

A. General Aptitude

A correlation coefficient of $r = .27$ was obtained as a result of analysis of the subjects' final grades and scores received from the general aptitude section of The University Entrance Examination. This indicates a low but statistically significant relationship between the scores obtained in the general aptitude examination and success in foreign language learning (see Table I).

TABLE I

Correlation Coefficient Obtained as Result of Analysis of General Aptitude Scores and Course Grades

TEST	CORRELATION WITH COURSE GRADES
General Aptitude	$r = .27$; $p < .05$

B. Attitude Towards the Target Group

The obtained correlation coefficient, $r = .099$, between the subjects' course grades and their scores on the inventories at the beginning of the semester indicates no significant statistical relationship at .05 level. In other words, the subjects' attitudes toward the target group before the instruction took place did not influence their learning of the target language.

At the end of the academic year, however, the correlation coefficient obtained as a result of analysis of the subjects' final scores and the application of the attitude inventory indicated a statistically significant relationship at .05 level ($r = .204$). This indicates that there has been a significant improvement in the students' attitudes toward the target language group following a year of formal language learning (see Table II).

TABLE II

Correlations Obtained from the Subjects' Course Grades and Their Attitude Inventory Scores toward the Target Group.

ATTITUDE INVENTORY SCORES	CORRELATION WITH COURSE GRADES
Before Instruction	$r = .099$; $p > .05$
After Instruction	$r = .204$; $p < .05$

C. Orientation Index

No significant relationship was observed between the subjects' success in language learning and the scores obtained in the orientation index inventory (see Table III). Nevertheless, this result should be evaluated, taking into account the fact that the subjects are studying the target language as a compulsory service language for studies in this university.

TABLE III

Relationship between the Subjects' Success in Language Learning and the Scores Obtained in the Orientation Index Inventory

STATISTICS	SUCCESS IN LEARNING	INDEX INVENTORY
Mean	68.42	64.64
Standard Deviation	9.64	14.16
Difference between Means	3.78	
Standard Error of Estimate	2.45	
't' Score	1.538*	

* $p < .05$

D. Study Habits

A significant relationship was observed between success in the target language and students' study habits. Those students who in the questionnaire marked the items known to indicate use of study habits conducive to efficient learning were more successful than those who did not employ these study habits (see Table IV).

TABLE IV

Correlation between the Subjects' Course Grades and Their Study Habits

	CORRELATION WITH COURSE GRADES
Study Habit Scores	$r = 0.493$; $p < .01$

E. Attitude Towards the Teacher

Subjects who indicated positive attitudes toward the teacher and the language class were found to be more successful in the target language than those who did not. In other words, there was a significant positive correlation ($r = .406$) between success in the target language and the pre-established criteria for measuring attitudes towards the teacher in class (see Table V).

TABLE V

Correlation Obtained from the Subjects Course Grades and Attitude towards the Teacher Questionnaire Scores

	CORRELATION WITH COURSE GRADES
Attitude towards the Teacher	$r = .406$; $p < .05$

F. Anomie and Ethnocentrism

A significant correlation was observed between success in the target language and the students' assumed roles in the society and students' empathy with their own society. Those subjects who believed their society to have significant weaknesses were observed to be more successful in learning the target language. Those students who possessed higher ethnocentric scores were less successful in learning the target language.

It can be concluded that there is a positive correlation between subjects with high anomie scores and success in the target language, and a negative correlation between high ethnocentric scores and success in the target language.

G. Subjects' In-class Behaviour

A correlation coefficient of $r = 0.69$ was obtained between success in the target language and the scores given to the subjects by the teachers evaluating the subjects at the end of the year. This indicates an even higher correlation than necessary to be significant at 5% level. Furthermore, a significant relationship has been established as a result of the calculation of the arithmetic means of the most successful 25% of the subjects and the least successful 25%, which proves that the teachers tended to score the better students higher with respect to in-class behaviour (see Table VI).

TABLE VI

Correlation between Success in the Target Language and Scores Given to the Subjects by the Teachers

	CORRELATION WITH COURSE GRADES
Subjects' In-class Behaviour	$r = .690$; $p < .01$

H. Duration Spent in Formal Language Learning

The difference between the arithmetic means of the subjects who had studied English in high school and the subjects who had not was calculated, and no statistically significant difference was found (see Table VII).

TABLE VII

STATISTICS	GROUPS	
	STUDIED ENGLISH	DID NOT STUDY ENGLISH
Mean	67.42	65.03
Standard Deviation	11.63	10.44
Difference between Means	2.39	
Standard Error of Estimate	2.34	
't' Score	1.023*	

* $p < 0.05$

It was observed that while answering the questions in Questionnaire One, students were uncomfortable, and this may have resulted from the nature of the questions and the socio-political climate of that period. It was observed by the teachers responsible for the education of the subjects that in the initial stages of the study, where subjects were exposed to information about the culture of the target language group in the textbooks, an antipathetic attitude developed amongst the subjects. However, with further exposure to cultural concepts, the level of antipathy decreased significantly.

Periodic interviews with the subjects revealed dissatisfaction on their part towards the methodology employed in the language laboratory. In general, subjects expressed opinions in favour of more frequent recording of their own voices and evaluation of such recording by the teacher.

The subjects' suggestions for improving the handling of the preparatory English language classes corresponded directly to their individual learning strategies.

The teachers responsible for the education of the subjects in the study defined the successful learners as possessing the following qualities:

a. They place emphasis on meaning as well as on structure.
b. They participate in class drills, and make efforts to correct their friends' errors as well as their own.
c. They constantly formulate new language patterns.
d. They are not afraid of making errors and making guesses in class.

CONCLUSION

In the light of the findings made during the study and the review of the literature on language and language learning, the following proposals can be put forward for implementation and for further research.

1. It was observed during the literature survey that there is a very significant lack of resources in the field of teaching and learning of foreign languages written in Turkish. It was also noted during interviews with the teachers involved and with specialists in the field that there was insufficient knowledge and ability to contribute effectively to research and curriculum development involving the factors affecting success in foreign language learning. For this purpose, the extensive and rapidly expanding literature resources in this area must be made available as reference material through translation. In addition, in the teacher training institutions, courses in techniques and methods of language learning research should be offered at the postgraduate level.

2. It was observed both in the literature survey and in the findings of the research that success in foreign language learning is, to a large extent, dependent upon psychological factors. Today, there is a great deal of dissatisfaction on the part of the student due to the fact that he is 'forced' to study the foreign language.

There is a need for change in the present system of foreign language education in Turkey, and where changes are made, theories of motivation, individual learning strategies, and an openly defined language competency should be considered paramount. Language and culture are 'organic' and this must be considered in language education and, wherever valuable, cultural information should be transferred to the students. Since foreign language learning is positively correlated with a positive attitude towards the culture of the target language group, the transfer of cultural information will facilitate the learning of grammatical and lexical items.

3. The findings of the research indicate that student success in foreign language learning is significantly influenced by the learner's socio-cultural and psychological orientations. For this reason, it is impossible to speculate on the best language program for all students.

4. In determining teaching methodology, various factors should be considered, and the students' psychological and socio-cultural backgrounds, individual characteristics and individual learning strategies should be taken into account. In determining in-class activities, the students' individual learning strategy preferences should be given primary consideration.

5. One of the major weaknesses in formal language teaching is that there is no established criteria for competency in foreign language learning. For this reason, students are continually in search of a

definition of the notion of 'knowing' a foreign language, and consequently lack a clearly defined objective which as a result inhibits their potential. The institutions responsible for formal education in foreign languages should state in behavioural terms exactly what is meant by competency in the foreign language.

6. Present objectives, if any, formulated in institutions of higher education in the field of foreign language learning should be reviewed and revised to take into account the educational needs and aspirations of the students. Due to the complexity of the field of research, this study has not been able to investigate all the relevant psychological and social factors affecting success in foreign language learning. It is with this in mind that it is proposed that further experimental projects should be carried out, and, in doing so, that the socio-cultural characteristics of students, teacher, school and environment should form the independent variables. It is also essential that experimental studies with a higher degree of control and more clearly defined variables be conducted in order to shed light into the complexity of foreign language learning.

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ENGLISH AND ARABIC PHONOLOGY -- FURTHER COMMENTS

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In his article, 'A Contrastive Analysis of English and Arabic Phonology,' G. Vance Stevens states that he "will attempt to address the Arabic language in general" (Stevens, 1982). Despite the fact that he admits that there is "no such homogeneous entity in colloquial use," I feel that this takes too simplistic a view of the linguistic complexities of Arabic, and I offer the following paper in the hope that it will supplement some of Mr. Stevens' original information.

Broadly speaking, there are three forms of Arabic: Classical, Colloquial, and Modern Standard, the language of the mass media and journalism. Colloquial Arabic is the language spoken by most Arabs when they are at home, and it is the form which varies most widely from area to area. Linguistic research on this topic is very meagre, but Altoma (1970) explains that it results in diglossia and that while this itself causes problems, the reason for its continuance is quite simple: "....Teachers themselves tend to use the colloquial for one reason or another" (Altoma, 1970). Hence, an Arab child will learn to speak one language and write another, and certain groupings of dialects have begun to take on the authority of full languages.

Thus, we can now speak of Gulf Arabic, Egyptian Arabic, Levantine (or Greater Syrian) Arabic, Sudanese Arabic and Maghreb Arabic, for all these sub-divisions have developed specific features which distinguish them from both the classical form of the language and from the other colloquial forms.

Here again linguistic research is scanty, but Gasin (1965) researching Sudanese Colloquial Arabic, has found a strikingly large residue from languages such as Nubian, Old Egyptian and Coptic, languages no longer extant in the area but which could have had an influence on Sudanese Arabic alone. Similarly, Garbell (1958), researching the Arabic dialect then spoken in Jerusalem, postulated the influence of Aramaic -- which is still spoken in the villages of Mualula, Bakha and Jubadin in Syria (Wright, 1982). Any research that is undertaken in Oman will show a large stock of Hindi and Swahili loan words, and Omar (1976) has produced a contrastive study of Levantine and Egyptian Arabic, with a glossary of lexical items that differ between the two regions. Similar diversity exists between Levantine and Gulf Arabic, or between Iraqi and Egyptian Arabic.

This is not to say that these dialects are mutually incomprehensible. The exstensive influence of Egyptian films, TV and radio, coupled with the Lebanese and Palestinian diaspora, has resulted in colloquial Egyptian and Greater Syrian forms gaining widespread acceptance. An interesting point here is Ingham's (1971) statement that Meccan speech "is substantially different

from that of the Hejaz in many respects [and] bears a strong resemblance to the group of dialects including those of Egypt, the Sudan and part of the Levant" (Ingram, 1971). It is clear that this is not coincidental. The most prestigious dialect spoken in Saudi Arabia is that of the Nejd, but Mecca has obviously adopted many of the characteristics of the speech of its pilgrims, and so differs from both the speech of the Nejd and that of the rest of the Hejaz.

Ferguson (1959), however, has pointed out that this locally variant speech would not be regarded with disfavour by the Arab who spoke it, for most Arabs seem convinced that their own local dialect comes closest to the perfection of the classical form, and until far more research is done, there will be no authoritative evidence with which to contradict this opinion. Abboud (1970) paints a depressing picture of the state of research into colloquial Arabic: "....Thoroughgoing descriptive analyses of even the better-known dialects are lacking, let alone the many regions that are still unknown; comparative studies in depth are still rare; and the whole field of social dialectology has hardly been touched" (Abboud, 1970). Beeston (1970) is equally plaintive, but in his case the concern lies with Modern Standard Arabic, and one result of this lack of authoritative research has been the uncritical assumption of the linguistic unity of Arabic at a time when its very diversity may well be increasing.

For example, Altoma (1970) states that in 1936 the Egyptian Academy began work on a dictionary of scientific and technological terminology which would include terms used in other Arab countries such as Iraq, North Africa and Syria." In September 1979, however, it was still necessary to convene a conference in Baghdad with the identical aim of standardizing Arabic technological vocabulary (Arab Dawn, 1980).

Also in 1979, Fuad Bustani, the former President of the Lebanese University, claimed, "Most Arab leaders don't speak Arabic properly. With most, you can catch one or two errors in every sentence of an improvised speeech. If the pure, classical Arabic is taken as the primary unifying bond among all Arabs, then I must conclude that spirited efforts must be exerted without delay to salvage the language from oblivion" (Malta Daily News, 1979).

The interesting factors here, of course, are that Professor Bustani automatically assumes that 'proper' Arabic is 'pure, classical Arabic' and that he ignores the possibility that Arab leaders are more likely to be concerned with communication than with linguistic elegance when they are speaking on political themes. His attitude, however, is identical to that of Sarsam (1965) who has produced the following constrastive tables of English and Arabic phonemes:

English	p	b	t	d	k	g	s	z
Arabic		b	t	d	k		s	z
English	f	v	θ	ð	ʃ	ʒ	m	n
Arabic	f		θ	ð	ʃ		m	n
English	ŋ	l	tʃ	r	h	w	j	dʒ
Arabic		l	tʃ		h	w	j	dʒ

English	ʔ							
Arabic	ʔ	ɣ	x	ħ	ʕ	q	ʧ	ʤ
English	ʒ	ʃ	ʕ					
Arabic	ʒ	ʃ	ʕ					
English	i:	i	e	æ	a:		ɔ	ɔ:
Arabic	i:	i						
English	u	u:	ʌ	ə	:			
Arabic	u	u:					ə:	

Both the tables reflect the "proper" position of English and Arabic, but they give a misleading impression. With the consonants, Sarsam goes on to admit that in his own dialect of Iraqi Arabic /g/ is present, and that Iraqi speakers have no difficulty with /v/ because of the influence of Farsi (Sarsam, 1966). Similarly, /g/ replaces /ʤ/ in Egyptian Arabic, and also in the dialects spoken in the Jebel Akhdar and Dhofari regions of Oman. Harvey (1980) points out that Iraqi Arabic is unique in its ability to produce /p/ in loan words like /pulis/ - police, and /pant r/ - puncture, and at a lower level of importance Al-Ani and May (1973) treat 'clear' and 'dark' /l/ as separate phonemes in Arabic, whereas they are allophones in English. Similarly, /x/ is not an unknown phoneme in English, being part of every Scot's repertoire.

The vowel chart, however, is more misleading because while Sarsam admits that /ɔ/ and /ɔ:/ exist in colloquial use, the distribution of these phonemes varies. Ferguson (1957) finds /ɔ:/ in Iraq, Egypt and Damascus Arabic, while Lehn (1967) finds it in Nejdi, but /ɔ/ is found only in Damascus (Ferguson 1957) and Morocco (Harris, 1942). Similarly, /e/ is found in Damascus (Ferguson, 1957), Jerusalem (Garbell, 1958), and in Morocco as 'a rare variant' (Harris, 1942).

/ə/, moreover, is "not a basic Arabic sound," according to Sarsam, but it is found by Garbell in what she calls 'eastern Mediterranean Arabic' and by Lehn in the Nejd. Harris, moreover, tells us "Moroccan Arabic is divergent from other modern Arabic dialects [...] chiefly in the change of most occurances of short vowels to /ə/ (Harris, 1942).

From this small sample, therefore, we can see that phonemes which, on Sarsam's original evidence, are either non-existent or peculiar to the Iraqi colloquial are, in fact, to be found in widely disparate areas of the Arab world. It is, therefore, possible that closer investigation and more research in dialectology will reveal further differences from the accepted generalities and cultural myths that at present befog Arabic studies. I hope that this paper will have gone some way to revealing the virtual impossibility of treating Arabic as a single language, for only when we accept it for what it is -- a series of mutually comprehensible dialects -- will we be able to analyse the phonology and structure of its constituent members in a synchronic manner, instead of constantly comparing the colloquial form with a common standard of whose existence we have little evidence.

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ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL AUXILIARY LANGUAGE: PART II

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EDITOR'S NOTE: In Part I of her article (TEAM 43, 1983), Professor Thomas discusses some of the reasons for and the implications of treating English as an international auxiliary language. One of her main points is that we should think more about students' communicative needs rather than imposing a native speaker model on them. In Part II, she discusses the kinds of materials required for this change of emphasis.

TEACHING MATERIALS

It is a common complaint among Venezuelan teachers that the majority of language teaching materials available are written on the assumption that the foreign learner lives in or will live in an English speaking country. The selection of functions and, in general, the sociolinguistic input of these texts follow from such an assumption, and yet it is a false one for the majority of language learners in Venezuela and, probably, in much of the rest of the world.

For this reason, teaching materials produced in Britain and the U.S.A. are more often than not inappropriate to the needs of our students and, indeed, unsuitable for them. As teachers we end up chopping, changing, and eliminating a great deal. This is fine when the teacher has the perception, the time, and the know-how, but, unfortunately, many teachers in many parts of the world do not.

It would be very helpful if textbook writers and publishers were to consider more carefully the materials they produce and understand the needs of the foreign learner not only in relation to the L1 speaker and culture, but also in relation to other L2 and FL speakers of English and their cultures.

Despite the protest to these objections offered by some textbook writers, it is clear that such considerations are not usually made in the majority of text books; the topics, the settings, the situations, the types of individuals represented and even the linguistic forms selected do not correspond to the needs and interests of our students.

Obviously, it would be impossible to produce a <u>neutral</u> text. The relationship between language and culture is extremely complex, and when a speaker (or textbook writer) selects options from a linguistic system or set of systems, he draws on everything he considers relevant: knowledge of cultural assumptions, attitudes, values of the social group to which he belongs, and so on.

Textbook writers have tended to reflect middle-class, mainly urban and usually fairly liberal, ideologies which are essentially British or American in flavour. This is generally true of texts, whatever methodology they apply.

At present, many textbooks are presented as functional or communicative, and linguistic forms are selected which express the functions to be taught. If we wish to teach English as an international language, a great deal of research is needed on functions across cultures and the linguistic forms must be more carefully selected. Frequently, there are linguistic items in these texts which are so marked as local, geographical, class or sex specific that they are unsuitable for teaching, leading as they can to grossly inappropriate use and misunderstanding. One or two simple examples may suffice. The function of accepting or refusing an invitation is often expressed in these texts by:

I'd love to.
I'd love to but ...
I'm awfully sorry but ...
I'm terribly sorry but ...
That would be great but ...
Hey that's great ...

It might be appropriate to teach these forms for recognition, but since they reflect specific class, age-group or regional varieties, for production it is perhaps preferable to teach a less marked form, such as:

Thank you. I'd like that.
I'm sorry (+ excuse).

It is stressed that we must teach 'natural and appropriate language.' But all too often there has been a gross lack of attention to appropriateness in terms of social class, sex, et cetera. More care should be taken with work done on varieties of English and systemic linguistic descriptions of English, so that the selection may be made in terms of wider usage and appropriateness.

What is true of the selection of language items is also true of the selection of topics, situations and so on. In many texts we find lessons based on finding a flat (apartment), following recipes, or making a date. Such topics or activities are not always interesting to or suitable for our students. We need texts that do not

1. have Britain or the U.S.A. as the background;
2. reflect only the value systems and attitudes of Americans or Britons;
3. depict physical types of urban middle-class America or Britain only (although occasionally there are token working-class representatives and some some recent texts show foreign students in the U.S.A. or Britain);
4. present topics which focus on concerns or interests irrelevant outside the countries in which the textbook is produced.

To sum up, in the so-called Third World we do not need texts which present

the pipe dreams or problems of middle-class urban prosperity. We need texts for TEIL (teaching English as an international language) which reflect and respect the needs of our students conceptually, experientially and linguistically.

The best solution is for teachers to collect and make their own materials, but when this is impossible because of a lack of time or training there are materials for native or L2 speakers of English that have been produced for use in schools, e.g. geography, history and social-studies books, encyclopaedias and science textbooks. For students who need to learn to communicate in their own field there are the journals of their specialities. In Venezuela, with students who are following post-graduate courses in petroleum and energy, I generally use 'The OPEC Bulletin,' 'Arab Oil and Gas,' etc. The language used in these journals is basically the same as that found in U.S. periodicals. The difference lies in the attitudes expressed. The Venezuelan student thus feels greater motivation and solidarity, and this helps promote understanding and learning.

Basically, we should aim to incorporate materials -- visual, recorded and printed -- not only from mother-tongue countries, but also from English L2 countries and from wherever English is used to communicate intra-nationally and internationally. In Latin America, for example, we could use materials from Africa, India, and so on. The teaching of the written language should take on a renewed importance as the most dependable, stable, standardized form, the one which is internationally intelligible. Reading should be taught right from the beginning because the written word will be seen as the most dependable means of access to science, technology, commercial transactions, leisure time activities and creative literature. This is true both for the individual learner and for nations.

Today, access to data banks is often a necessary condition in the taking of decisions by companies, banks and governments. At the present time, third world countries are constrained to use the data banks of the developed countries. It is essential that developing countries set up their own data banks so that they can share information and communicate directly without having to use the developed countries as intermediaries or informers. Here, International English, the language of computers and the language most countries use as a means of international communication, can be a useful instrument in the struggle for economic independence.

Finally, we will want to encourage our students to perceive English as an alternative, auxiliary language to be used internationally, through which they can communicate not merely with native speakers of English but also with L2 speakers and other foreign language speakers of English. English -- whatever and in spite of the original reasons for its spread -- will now, and in the future, have a new role: that of serving as an effective auxiliary instrument of communication between the peoples of today's world.

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DIAGRAMS WITH CLOZE

A GUIDED SPEAKING ACTIVITY TAILORED TO A READING ACTIVITY

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Here is an activity which combines the features of several traditional reading and speaking exercises, especially cloze, data transfer, and the use of visual prompts for extended speech. It provides practice in speaking while motivating students to read carefully for complete understanding of process descriptions. It can accommodate every level of ability in your class and requires very little preparation time.

There are several variations, but here is the basic formula.

Whenever there is a description of a process (or an apparatus, etc.) in a reading passage, make or find a diagram which illustrates it. Such diagrams are usually included in the reading book. Next, write a summary of the paragraph(s) in which the process is described. Delete certain key words according to whatever criteria you prefer. Finally, make a transparency of the diagram and prepare to display the cloze passage simultaneously, either on the same transparency or separately (on the blackboard, on a poster, etc.). Figure 1 shows how such a transparency might look.

In class, spend a few minutes preparing the students. Have them do the cloze exercise independently. Then give a short demonstration of what you expect them to do. Next, ask individual students to stand close to the screen and explain the process to the class. If you treat this activity as something of a game, while emphasizing its value as preparation for the oral exam, they will enjoy it immensely; few of them will be able to resist participating.

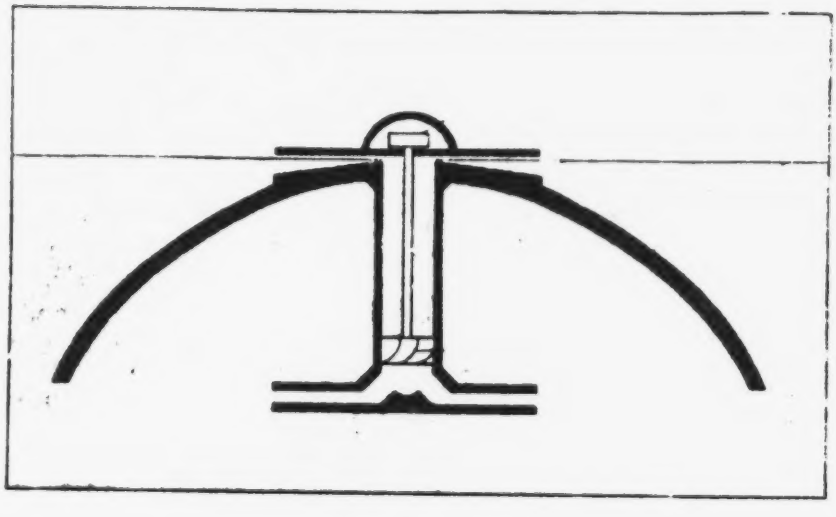
The best students in your class may not feel sufficiently challenged by the cloze passage. If this is the case, then simply remove the cloze and ask for a 'free' description of the process. The weaker students may need more help; if so, use a plastic overlay to fill in some of the missing words.

This activity is ideal for end-of-the-week afternoons when students are tired. It picks them up and channels their restless energies into something productive. Also, by encouraging students to help their classmates over difficult spots, this activity involves everyone. Activities such as this give students a chance to be active, and to slip out of the student role for a few moments. It is a rare student who does not occasionally enjoy playing teacher.

FIGURE 1

CLOZE EXERCISE

This is a _____ _____ plant. Its machinery is inside a _____ concrete _____ which floats on the _____ of the sea. Water enters through some _____ at the _____. It falls through a central _____ to a _____ at the base of the device. The water makes the turbine _____ and then rushes out through some _____ at the base of the core. The turbine is connected to a _____ which turns a _____ at the top of the core. This _____ produces electrical _____ as it rotates.



PRESENTING GRAMMAR 001 & 002 AT UPM: SOME SUGGESTIONS

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When we ask a question, we usually have a reason for asking -- to get some information. Without this reason, asking a question is rather pointless or artificial. However, if we can create some kind of 'information gap,' we may be able to provide the missing reason. In other words, if the student lacks certain items of required information, he then has a reason to ask some questions.

The following is an attempt (albeit profligate of materials) to create an 'information gap' in the pictures at the beginning of each lesson in the grammar textbooks used at UPM. (The same technique could be used with most textbooks.) A transparency is made of the four pictures and one of them is projected onto the screen, the other three being masked. Two students are given the appropriate questions only -- they can be cut out and pasted onto cards. Their task is to find out what the picture is about by questioning, under teacher supervision, the other students, who have meanwhile studied the appropriate passage. The information gleaned is written down by the two students, who are then required to provide this information to all the other students. Thus, a rationale has been created for asking questions.

Although the students have previously met most of the structures presented in Grammar 001 and 002, their working knowledge is often very uncertain. Below is one way of bringing a structure to life, adapted from systemic grammar. A set of cards is required, marked as follows:

I you we they	WH-	V	+ D_2 *
NOT *	HE she it	HAVE *	BE *
ARE	DO *	AM	CAN
WOULD	+ S *	+ ING *	+ D_1

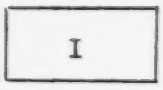
* Two copies are required for these cards.

First of all, some of the symbols used should be explained.

WH-	stands for the wh- question words, including how
V	stands for the base form of the verb
+ D_1	stands for the past simple, e.g. V + D_1 = walked, went et al.
+ D_2	stands for the past participle, e.g. V + D_2 = walked, gone et al.
+ S	stands for 3rd pers. sg., present, e.g. V + S = walks, goes et al.
	HAVE + S = has
	BE + S = is

With a little practice on the simpler forms, the students soon understand the system. To illustrate, let us consider the presentation of the present continuous passive.

Give a student CARD 1 and ask him to come to the front of the class and show it to his classmates.

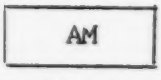


CARD 1

Give CARD 2 to another student and let him do likewise.

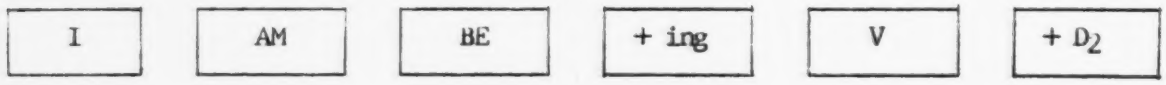
CARD 2

Give CARD 3 to a third student; the seated students must tell him where to stand.



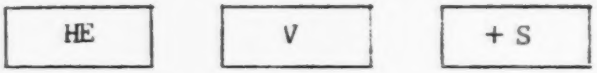
CARD 3

If the cards are distributed in random order, a great deal of lively activity should produce six students standing in front of the class, holding these cards:



Using cards again, the following tense form drill enlivens the classroom considerably. On prepared cards the teacher has written such items as 'shake your head,' 'knock on the door,' 'raise your right hand' and many others from the realms of Total Physical Response. Signal a student to come forward, read a card and perform the action -- all in silence. Now ask the class, "What's he doing?" "What's he just done?" etc. Two cards could be used to drill a time-relative tense like the past perfect.

If the students prove unwilling actors, the following is an effective compromise: mark a grid (with permanent ink) on an overhead projector plastic sheet. Within the squares, write the symbols used on the index cards, and cut them into individual pieces which can be manipulated easily on the projector. This works particularly well in eradicating such responses as "He does not knows" by showing how



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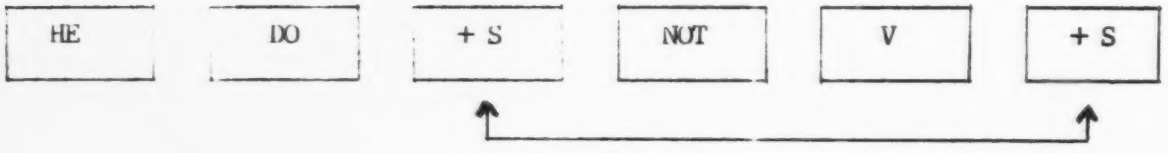

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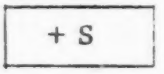

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BASIC TECHNICAL ENGLISH

Jeremy Comfort, Steve Hick and Allan Savage
Oxford University Press, 1982
Textbook and Teacher's Manual

(Reviewed by Bob Ellison, University of Petroleum & Minerals)

Institutes of further education have generally lamented the absence of publications appropriate to their needs. It was, therefore, with some pleasure that I looked through these two books (student's text and teacher's manual) in which the authors have presented and given theoretical support to a series of units which should go some way to fulfilling the need for further education texts.

The student's book covers topics ranging from 'shapes' to 'thermostatic controls.' There are 24 units involving 70-80 hours of classroom teaching. Each unit has four sections which cover the following:

1. Presentation, in which new language features are presented in a technical text;
2. Practice, where students use new features together with those of previous units;
3. Development, in which additional practice is given using another topic;
4. Summary, using sentence patterns, connectors, reference and vocabulary.

The teacher's book gives an outline of linguistic objectives and guidance on presenting the materials. There are also suggestions for further exploitation of the material and notes to help teachers with non-technical backgrounds. Finally, a full answer key is provided.

Throughout the student's book there are good diagrams and tables to assist understanding. However, I would suggest that in view of possible conceptual difficulties, coupled with the high lexical content, teachers should be made aware of the need to supplement the texts with films and working models.

On the whole, the book does not fall into the trap of over-simplifying the texts in such a way that there is likely to be a large gap between what the students learn about technical English and what they are likely to be asked to read, for example, in technical manuals. The question must be asked, however, whether a beginner can make the necessary leap in the 80 hours of classroom instruction to handle such authentic texts. To this extent, the book, if used alone, perhaps promises too much, particularly in view of the high lexical content.

On balance, I would suggest that this book, whilst possibly suitable for highly motivated beginners, is likely to be much more successful with students who have some familiarity with English. In addition, if it were linked with an oral component, a suggestion the authors do not exclude, there may be additional benefits.

To conclude, this is a very useful book, well thought out and presented. It should find receptive audiences throughout the EFL/Technical world.

The Functional-Notional Approach: From Theory to Practice

by Mary Finocchiaro and Christopher Brumfit
Oxford University Press, 1983

(Reviewed by Thomas J. Ferrucci, University of Petroleum & Minerals)

With the introduction of any new approach to the teaching of foreign languages, there inevitably come attempts at explanation and clarification offered by writers both established and little heard of. The Functional-Notional Approach is one of the more recent additions to the growing bibliography of communicative methodologies.

Beginning with an overview of methods of foreign language teaching, The Functional-Notional Approach moves into a description of the background of notional-functionalism. The third chapter concerns the planning and writing of a notional-functional curriculum and includes categories of functions and notions as well as categories of situations, grammatical items, and topics of conversation. This is followed by a comparison of the features of the audio-lingual approach with those of the notional-functional approach, and a detailing of teacher responsibilities in the notional-functional approach. A description of language sub-systems along with suggestions for presenting these systems to students comprises the fifth chapter. Two further chapters list a variety of activities and classroom procedures, followed by a compendium of material teaching aides. The final section of the book discusses problems involved in evaluation and offers suggestions for testing techniques.

The brief survey of language teaching methodologies in the first chapter is adequate for a book of this nature. However, in describing the history of the notional-functional approach in the second chapter, the authors have devoted too much space to a justification of the unit-credit system endorsed by the Council of Europe, the group chiefly responsible for the introduction of the notional-functional basis of teaching. The description only tangentially gives that which the reader most hopes to find: a clear picture of what the notional-functional approach is and why it might be used. More to-the-point descriptions of this approach have been presented in relatively short articles. The third chapter's look at curriculum is complete although the function/notion lists are not, and perhaps never can be, extensive. The admonition to teachers found in the fourth chapter is basically the same sound advice offered by most good teacher-preparation texts. Additionally, this chapter puts forth a very fine logical basis for classroom "fluency activities" (i.e. student interaction minimally controlled by the teacher). It may be added that this type of activity is especially relevant for courses taught in a non-target language environment. The discussion of language sub-systems in chapter five is so superficial that its value is questionable. The chapters summarizing classroom activities and material aides are undoubtedly useful to any teacher; however, they are are essentially the same tricks found in any experienced teacher's 'bag'. Little new is offered. The

final chapter is rather more innovative in its offerings. Although the authors display some time-honored techniques for testing, they show some new evaluation methods as well. Unfortunately, they do not indicate how test items are to be scored using these proposed testing methods. For example, in a written productive test shown on page 194, a student's answer could be communicatively appropriate, but have grammatical and spelling errors. No guidelines are given as to how such a response might be evaluated. Furthermore, a short answer of a few words could suffice. Would a longer, equally appropriate response be judged any more highly? This chapter could offer some valuable information since not too much has been written about testing in a communicative curriculum. Regrettably, Finocchiaro and Brumfit do not supply more complete and satisfying information.

One other observation must be made. The numerous typographical errors found in the book may indicate a hasty attempt to put a book on the market. Such misspellings as 'grammer' and 'communcative' have no place in a language teacher's guide.

To conclude, The Functional-Notional Approach is perhaps a useful book for new teachers, especially for its activities/aides listings. Still, it offers no new insights into foreign language teaching and may leave the reader unsatisfied because of its lack of depth. This may be a helpful book, but it is not an essential book.

. . . ELC NEWS ITEMS

By press time, the ELC will have completed the first semester of this academic year. It is not surprising, therefore, that the most vocal news and gossip circulating the campus is: who's going where for end-of-term holiday! But the semester itself was professionally busy, and a number of items are worthy of mention.

Figuring most prominently is the promotion of Dr. MOHAMMED A. MULLA from ELC Director to Director of the Prepararory Year Program. Dr. Mulla is now administratively responsible for all orientation courses, which in addition to English include math, systems engineering, industrial arts and physical education. Our congratulations and best wishes to Dr. Mulla.

On Dr. Mulla's agenda for improving the overall quality of the ELC is the furthering of contact with other English language prorgams through articles in TEAM and through conferences. In this issue, articles from both King Saud and King Abdulaziz Universities are included. The first of the conferences were in December when the ELC hosted visiters from King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah. The delegation included Mr. DAVID HARPER, Director of the KAU ELC, Mr. KAYUM MAGDOOM of the Reading Division, and KAU administrators, Dr. ABDURRAOUF MANNA and Dr. MUHAMMED JEFFRI; they addressed instructors, visited classes and facilities, and lunched with UPM faculty for a more informal exchange of ELT directions and challenges.

The next scheduled visits will be from Dr. BASEM RA'AD of the Gulf Polytechnic College of Bahrain, and Dr. BOUTROS of the English Department at the Abha Campus of King Saud University.

In early January, the ELC was represented at a conference sponsored by the Dhahran district of the Saudi Arabian International Schools. The main presentation was by Dr. Madeline Hunter of UCLA, who discussed effective teaching methods. More than 300 teachers from the area attended.

During the Spring Semester, a special English program will be offered through the ELC for military officers attached to the Ministry of Interior Affairs. The classes, designed to aid officials engaged in passport control and customs, will be taught by ELC instructors DOUGLAS GRIFFITH and ROBERT VINCENT.

Congratulations to ELC instructor PETER MACFARQUHAR whose paper, authored with Jack C. Richards of the University of Hawaii, was recently published by RELC, the journal of the Regional Language Center of the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization. Entitled 'On Dictionaries and Definitions,' the paper evaluates various dictionaries and was originally presented at last year's TESOL Convention in Toronto.

JOHN PINT, collaborating with his wife, Susana, has begun writing a book on 'The Silent Way.' Both the Pints have worked closely over the years with Caleb Gattegno, the creator of 'The Silent Way,' and have conducted seminars teaching various languages using this method.

ANNOUNCEMENTS . . .

18th Annual TESOL Convention

March 6 to 11, 1984

At the Hyatt Regency Hotel in Houston, Texas. Information from: TESOL 202 D.C. Transit Building Georgetown University Washington, D.C. 20057 USA.

RELC Regional Seminar on Communicative Language Teaching

April 23 to 27, 1984

The Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Regional Language Centre's 19th Regional Seminar in Singapore. Write to: Chair, Seminar Planning Committee SEAMEO Regional Language Centre 30 Orange Grove Road Singapore 1025 Republic of Singapore.

1984 ABC Summer Workshop at Columbia University

June 25 to July 14, 1984

Organized by Teachers College, this workshop will explore models, practices and issues in language teacher preparation. Write to: John F. Fanselow ABC Workshops Director Box 63 ELI Teachers College Columbia University New York, N.Y. 10027 USA.

1984 TESOL Summer Institute

June 25 to August 3, 1984

At Oregon State University. Theme: 'Crossing Bridges.' Participants can earn up to 9 graduate credits. Options of 1, 3, 4, or 6 weeks. If interested, write to: 1984 TSI English Language Institute Corvallis, Oregon 97331 USA.

Report on 'ESP in the Arab World' Conference

Persons in the Middle East region interested in obtaining a copy of the proceedings of this conference held August 1983 at the University of Aston at Birmingham and organised by John Swales may do so by writing to: Dr. Mohammed A. Mulla, Director of Preparatory Programs, University of Petroleum and Minerals, Box 144, Dhahran, Saudi Arabia. A check for six pounds fifty (British Sterling) to the order of John Swales is needed to defray costs.

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